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NOTICES

OF THE

INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO,

AND ADJACENT COUNTRIES;

BEING A COLLECTION OF PAPERS RELATING TO BORNEO, CELEBES, BALI, JAVA, SUMATRA, NIAS, THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, SULUS, SIAM, COCHIN-CHINA, MALAYAN PENINSULA, &c.

ACCOMPANIED BY AN INDEX AND SIX MAPS, VIZ.

1. THE TOWN AND SUBURBS OF SINGAPORE. 2 THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO, INCLUDING SIAM AND COCHIN-CHINA. 3. RIVER COTI IN BORNEO. 4. MALACCA AND NANING. 5. CHARTS OF SINGAPORE STRAIT &c. 6. PENANG AND PROVINCE WELLESLEY.

BY J. H. MOOR,

For some time Editor of the Malacca Observer, Singapore Chronicle, and Singapore Free Press.

Part First.

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ORIGINAL PROSPECTUS.

NOTICES OF THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO,

AND ADJACENT COUNTRIES.

By J. H. Moor, Late Editor of the Singapore Chronicle.

This work will consist of two parts, comprising altogether about 400 pages; the first part being a collection of papers relating to:

BORNEO, (including the late Mr. Dalton's statements regarding that island.)
CELEBES
BALI
JAVA
SUMATRA AND PULO NIAS
THE PHILIPPINE AND SOOLOO ISLES
SIAM
COCHIN-CHINA
THE MALAYAN PENINSULA, with its various divisions, states &c.

These papers are republications of various notices containing a mass of information on the above islands and countries, which appeared in the Singapore Chronicle from its commencement in 1824 to the year 1834. As some value has been placed on most of these, especially such as were written by Mr. Crawfurd, during his residence at Singapore and subsequently to the publication of his "History of the Indian Archipelago," it was thought worthy of some labor and expense to collect and republish them in one compendious volume; thus preserving many comparatively new and interesting statements regarding the Eastern islands and countries, which, from the ephemeral form and the present scarcity of the numbers of the Journal they originally appeared in, were almost lost to the public.

PART SECOND will comprise the following:

A brief history of Singapore, and of the policy which led Sir Stamford Raffles to establish the Settlement:

——A view of the intercourse Singapore enjoys by means of commerce, with the countries treated of in Part first—

——Tables of the imports and exports, of Singapore from 1823-24, to 1834-35 inclusive; with a distinct account of the principal articles of commerce obtainable there; from what countries and in what quantities each is annually imported and to what places again exported.

——A statement of the shipping, square-rigged and native, from 1824 to the year 1835; with a notice of the trade carried on by junks between Singapore and China.

——A treatise on the productions and capabilities of Singapore, the present land system, the prevalence of piracy in the neighbouring seas, and other matters concerning the Settlement.

This part will further contain several original papers, (as yet unpublished) relating to the Malayan Peninsula and Siam; and a treatise on Malacca, chiefly with respect to its capabilities as an agricultural district.

Also a survey of the system pursued by the Dutch in the government of those portions of the Archipelago which are subject to their authority, particularly Java; a review of the treaty entered into between Great Britain and Holland in 1824, shewing the great importance of a speedy revision of the same; an exposition of the views of the Dutch regarding Sumatra; a brief statement of the trade, productions, and resources of Java and other matters relating to that island—

——An account of the tin mines of Banca.

——A statement regarding the trade, productions and resources of Manila.

——An historical account of Borneo and of the Sooloo Islands, collected from various sources; with a review of Mr. Dalton's papers.

The whole will be accompanied by an index and five maps as follows:

1. The Island of Singapore and part of the Malayan Peninsula adjacent; having all the islands in the vicinity, including Bintang and the Carimons, laid down.
2. The town and suburbs of Singapore, and including the hills, roads and rivers in the vicinity.
3. The territory of Malacca including Nanning; with the rivers Lingie and Muar; and having the boundaries and the different partitions of land marked out.
4. The island of Penang and the territory of Province Wellesley—having all the different hills, districts &c. laid down.
5. The river of Coti in Borneo, (not generally placed in maps of that island) as explored to a considerable extent by Mr. Dalton.

These maps have been constructed according to the latest and most correct surveys and are on a conveniently large scale. They are about being lithographed in Calcutta by a skilful topographist.

The work will be issued, bound with coloured cloth back, price to subscribers Drs. 5, to non-subscribers Drs. 6, a copy.

N. B. As the work is chiefly a compilation, the Editor will be happy to receive literary contributions relative to any of the countries or subjects treated of; which, if furnished within reasonable time, and found acceptable, will be published in an appendix, if not embodied in the work.

A PREFACE BY WAY OF APOLOGY.

Two years have now fully elapsed since the Prospectus of this publication appeared, and indeed since the first sheet was put to press—sufficient time, many of our readers will think, to have produced a better and larger book than this.

When the publication was first undertaken, the compiler calculated on having ample leisure at command to accomplish without delay the task he had imposed on himself; but harassing duties having unexpectedly been put upon him in addition to those of his ordinary avocation, the object, if not frustrated, was in a great measure retarded. Again, the scarcity of printers at this settlement was another great cause of delay, and it is rather an unusual fact to record, that the whole of these pages were put in type by *one* printer, and that not the same person throughout, but according as an unemployed hand could be obtained. The difficulty of procuring printing paper on the spot, and the necessity of ordering it from a distance and waiting its arrival; the delay occasioned by having the maps lithographed at Calcutta, lengthened by the necessity of a reference to this place for some explanations before execution, all combined not only to clog the wheel of time, but to render the undertaking the source of so much uneasiness and expense, that the compiler often deliberated whether it would not be more to his advantage to relinquish the task altogether, before he involved himself more deeply in it, than continue it under such untoward circumstances. But as the Rubicon had been passed, and as considerable expense had been incurred which would be totally thrown away had the former consideration prevailed, the compiler was induced to persevere, in the hope that on an explanation being made of the difficulties under which he has laboured throughout, and which he is sure most of his friends will give him credit for, subscribers and critics will extend their indulgence to him, and make due allowance for the very many imperfections that are apparent.

The original Prospectus, given in a preceding page, stated that the work would consist of two Parts; the first a compilation, the second comprising various subjects which the author intended to have elucidated by observations of his own. The title page of this volume states however that this is but the first Part of the work; so that many topics having a direct reference to the Settlement of Singapore, its trade, commercial relations, and capabilities, have yet to be introduced. The author has indeed collected a variety of observations on these subjects; but, as already explained, the expense and delay that have attended the progress of the work so far, compel him in a manner to issue the first Part alone, both in order to recruit finances, and to wait more leisure and greater facilities in publishing the second part than he has hitherto had, and which he hopes very soon to have at command.

A number of interesting papers which originally appeared in the old series of the Singapore Chronicle, chiefly relating to the trade of this port, have been purposely omitted in this Part, as it was the author's intention to introduce them in an altered shape in the next.

It has been suggested that it would be very desirable to collect accounts of the numerous shoals and rocks which have been encountered of late years in the Eastern Seas, since the

publication of Horsburgh's Directory and Charts, and give them in an Appendix, in a uniform shape. This suggestion the compiler has attended to, having marked out for republication various accounts of shoals and rocks that have already been published in the Straits and Canton Papers. He would nevertheless be thankful to any commander who will furnish him with any observations on the subject that may be deemed worthy of general notice. A correct and recent chart of the China sea, if obtainable, and if encouragement be given, would perhaps be added.

It has also been suggested that some pictorial views of Singapore would be very acceptable. Should the author be favored with any, he will probably be induced to incur the expense of having them lithographed and adding them to the second part.

A want of arrangement in the various articles inserted in this volume is very apparent, and some on the same subject which are now far apart should have followed each other. This was owing to several of them having been met with at a much later period than after the prior ones had even been printed; for instance, MR. HUNT'S and DR BEYDEN'S Accounts of Borneo, which should have followed those of MR. DALTON, were not met with, though diligently inquired after in the Straits till all hopes of obtaining them were abandoned.

The publication altogether is far from producing satisfaction in the compiler's own mind; but he arms himself against the discontent that is likely to arise with subscribers, with the hope that he will be able to furnish them soon with another volume which he trusts will be more worthy of their attention than this is.

The present volume can be useful only for reference to certain particular subjects, and for the maps, which of themselves, without the accumulation of letter-press, are worth the subscription price. For the neatness and correctness with which they have been executed, the compiler is highly indebted to MR. TASSIN of Calcutta, whose skill has greatly improved almost all the original plans, and who suggested the addition of a map of the Indian Archipelago, which, it will be observed, was not included in the Prospectus. But as no expense has been spared in the execution of these maps, and as the outlay altogether has been very great, the stated price of the present volume will do no more than barely cover the charges, supposing the whole impression to be sold, leaving all thoughts of remuneration out of the question.

It only remains for the compiler to express his thanks to those gentlemen who kindly assisted him in obtaining the maps; to Lieutenant NEWBOLD and Mr. HARRIS for their contributions, the former relative to the native states in the Malayan Peninsula, and the latter for an account of an overland journey from Quedah to Bankok, as also to those friends who undertook to compile the Index when a press of business prevented the compiler from doing it himself, and to whose kindness also he is indebted for the use of printing materials and of a press. Having thus made his apology, the compiler submits his work to the indulgent consideration of the public.

It should be observed that no table of typographical errata is given; which intimates either that there are none such in the book, or that they are so numerous that they cannot be enumerated!

Singapore, December, 1837.

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MAP
OF
THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO
Including
SIAM AND COCHINCHINA
with parts of China and of the Burman Empire
Compiled by J.B. Tassin
To accompany
Mr MOOR'S NOTICES OF THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO
AND ADJACENT COUNTRIES
The British possessions in the Malay Peninsula are coloured red.
BURMAH
CHINA
SIAM
CAMBOJA
COCHIN CHINA
PHILLIPPINE ISLANDS
SEA
SULOO SEA
CELEBES SEA
BORNEO
JAVA SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
NEW GUINEA
TERRA AUSTRALIS
Longitude East 105 from Greenwich.

BORNEO PROPER.

THAT part of the island of Borneo which has given its European name to all the rest, is correctly pronounced by the inhabitants of the country itself, "Brunai," to all appearance, like the greater number of similar terms a primitive and indigenous word, for we can discover no good reason for the conjecture made by Mr. Hamilton, in his Gazeteer, and borrowed as we think from Leyden, that the term is a corruption of the sanskrit *Varuni* or sea-born.

If mere geographical extent could constitute greatness, Borneo Proper might be esteemed one of the most considerable kingdoms in Asia; for it has a sea coast of certainly not less than 700 miles in extent, and a depth of territory often of 100 and 150 miles. To the west it is bordered by the territory of Sambas, the boundary in this quarter to the sea being Tanjong Datu in the latitude of 3° N. and longitude of 110° 36 E. To the east it is bounded by the Bornean territories of the kingdom of Suluk, where the mouth of the river of Sandakan, in lat. 5° 50' N. & long. 118° 15 east, constitutes the frontier. To the south, Borneo is bounded by the possessions of various savage tribes; amongst the most powerful and considerable of whom, may be enumerated the Kayan—the Dusum—the Murut, and Tatao; men who take a pleasure in decapitating strangers; who glory in hoarding their skulls, and whose honors are estimated by the number of these trophies, which they are enabled to hand down to their posterity as heir-looms.

To the state of Borneo belong the following islands: Malawali, Banggi, Balambangan, (twice the seat of a British Settlement, and correctly written *Brambangan,*) Balabak, and Labuhan; among which are to be found several fine harbors favorably situated, and circumstanced for the trade of China, of the Philippines, and their own neighbourhood. It was here that Mr. Dalrymple the geographer indulged himself in the groundless fancy of establishing the capital of a grand Polynesian empire, an idle phantasie we will venture to say, however, often repeated with respect to any country of Polynesia, Java excepted, or possibly in two or three centuries hence, New Holland.

Borneo contains a number of fine rivers which, in a more advanced state of civilization than any of its inhabitants have yet attained, might be turned both to commercial and agricultural advantage. The most important are the rivers of Rayung and Balawi, which lead to *Sibatu* the capital of the Kayan, the most powerful, uncivilized, idolatrous tribe of the whole island—Mahiri, like the two last on the north coast, (that of Borneo, properly so called) which is navigable for 20 miles up for vessels of 300 tons burthen, and Sandakan or China Batangun on the north east coast of the island.

The interior of the Bornean territory is occupied by extensive chains of high mountains, amongst which the most remarkable for its form and elevation, is Kinibalu in the lat. of 6 N. and visible from both sides of the island which runs in this situation into a comparatively narrow head land. The geological formation of all the parts of Borneo with which we have become acquainted is primitive; nor have we any where heard of those trap formations which are so frequent in the islands further south, commonly called by geographers the Sunda Chain. Volcanos consequently are said not to exist in Borneo, but the districts further to the west to the other hand, such as Sarawak and Kalaka, between the 2d. and 3d. degrees of N. lat. abound in metals such as gold, antimony and zinc. In the country of the Kayan, tin and iron exist, the latter rich enough to be wrought to a considerable extent even by the barbarian inhabitants of the country.

The remarkable or useful productions of the principality of Borneo may be enumerated as follow: In the mineral kingdom, besides the productions already mentioned, there exist diamonds. Of land animals there exist the elephant, the rhinoceros, a species of leopard, —but not the royal tiger—the bear, the horse, the buffalo, the ox, the hog, the goat, the dog, the cat, the duck and the common fowl. The three first animals, it is singular enough, are

found only in a single corner of this vast island, its northern peninsular extremity, in the districts of Ungsang and Paitan; nor are they afterwards to be found in any country of the Archipelago to the eastward of this longitude. The horse, the goat and the dog are naturalized and domesticated strangers, the first being still confined to the districts of Pandasan and Tampasak between the 5th and 6th degrees of latitude. The ox, under the names of Tambadao is a native of the forests of Borneo, and so is the hog. It may be almost superfluous to advert to the well known fact, that Borneo, of all countries, affords the greatest variety of the ape and monkey tribe, and that in particular it produces that species which in external form approaches the nearest of all the animal creation to the human figure. To render the approximation as if it were the nearer, man himself on this island seems complaisantly disposed, on various occasions, to countenance the pretensions of his imitator. The seas afford the tortoise, the pearl oyster, the mother of pearl oyster and the esculant sea slug. The productions of a vegetable nature, valued for their utility or singularity, are rice, sago, black pepper, camphor, cinnamon, bees' wax and useful or ornamental woods.

Like all countries in a rude and unimproved state, the territory of Borneo Proper is inhabited or perhaps rather infested by numerous races of barbarians or savages differing from each other in language and ever in a state of hostility. A small district or even a village there, constitutes a nation. The principal tribes inhabiting the country, however, may be enumerated as follow:—the Malay, the Suluk, the Bajao, the Dusum, the Illanun, the Kadayan, the Bisaya, the Murut, the Kalamut, the Totung, the Kyajao, the Kayan, the Dayak, the Tatao, the Kanawit, and the Melando. The Malays, the most powerful and civilized race, will be afterwards referred to. The unconverted tribes, in manners and customs bear each other a close resemblance, and the following may be considered a brief picture of their condition:—They wear one piece of cotton or bark cloth round the loins and generally no other clothes. The Kayan warriors occasionally wear bear and leopard skins as coats and caps. Their arms consist of a blow-pipe for shooting poisoned arrows, of swords, of spears, and of long shields. At the capital of Kayan are to be found some cannon and some muskets, but these are a powerful people in the scale of Bornean greatness and the use of arms is rare amongst these barbarians. Some of the tribes are extremely mischievous and ferocious—others less so, and a few altogether inoffensive, or even disposed to industrious habits. In one custom a great number of the tribes agree, the passion for cutting off human heads, and hoarding skulls. The ostensible motive for this proceeding is not explained, but the custom at all events is as unequivocal an illustration of the systematic operation of Mr. Malthus's positive check to population, as any which can well be produced. Some of the tribes dwell in miserable log houses covered with leaves, but the greater number in houses of immense size raised on posts capable of affording accommodation to from 50 to 200 persons. Security from the attacks of their enemies, is the great object of these structures. The savages of Borneo are far from being in the lowest scale of social existence. There are no mere huntsmen amongst them—no wretches living on grubs or wild roots, or raw oysters. Almost all of them have some knowledge of agriculture, some cultivating rice, and others farinaceous roots and pulses. Several understand the smelting of iron and its manufacture into implements both of use and mischief.

In religious feelings the savages of Borneo are eminently deficient. They have no decent system of religious belief; no God—no idols—no priests—no temples or other places of worship. They have, notwithstanding, very many superstitions; paying great attention to good and bad omens and especially to the cry of the birds; in all rude and early stages of society, a frequent means of consulting futurity.

None of the native tribes of Borneo have any knowledge of an alphabet, nor any other means by visible signs of permanently recording their ideas. This must be considered as a singular fact, since all the other great islands have each one or more alphabets, and it points at once to some natural inferiority in the country itself; thus operating so remarkably in retarding civilization. This inferiority will probably be found chiefly to consist in the comparative sterility of a primitive country abounding in minerals, and in that discouragement of foreign and internal civilization which are the necessary consequence even of the physical configuration of a country which like the equally barbarous continent of Africa, is of compact and unbroken aspect, indented by neither bays nor great arms of the ocean, such as will be found to characterize the physical geography of every country in which man has made early progress.

The ruling tribe in Borneo Proper is the Malayan, and however rude this people, they are greatly beyond the rest of the inhabitants in civilization. They are said to constitute no more than a tenth part of the population, although including with them the tribes which they

have converted to mahomedanism. Their history is shortly told, or at least, all of it that can be known, or all that is worth telling of the transactions of so rude a people. The parent country of the Malayan race is unquestionably the table land of the interior of Sumatra, from whence, having spread themselves, the whole north coast of that island from Palembang in the 2d. degree of south latitude to Dilli between the 3rd. and 4th degrees of north latitude, they afterwards at different times and from different places emigrated to various islands in the Straits of Malacca, to the west and east coasts of the Peninsula, to the west coast of Borneo, to the small islands in the China Seas, to Kamboja, and finally as far as Borneo Proper, their extreme progress to the east. All this is an affair of no remote antiquity in European history. The Bornean emigration took place twenty-nine reigns ago, reckoning each of which at twenty years, we have a period of 580 years, which would place that event in the middle of the 13th century. This date agrees sufficiently well with other historical facts connected with the subject. The people of Borneo by their own account had not adopted the Mahomedan religion when they first emigrated.

The government resembles, in most respects, that of other Malayan states. The King is called by the Hindu name of Rajah, with the epithet of "lang di pertuan," which may be familiarly and literally translated "he who lords it;"—yes! and sometimes with a vengeance too. He is a petty despot, whose dignity is hereditary in his family, leaving him the privilege of nominating a successor. His council consists of four officers of state—the minister, the treasurer, the commander-in-chief, and the chief justice; called as in other eastern countries the pillars of the kingdom. Under these are two other great officers; one of which is a second minister, and the other a second or deputy commander-in-chief. The affairs of trade are managed by four inferior chiefs, the principal of whom are the intendant of the port and the warehouse-keeper. The latter, or orang kaya gadong, was the individual who was lately here as an envoy. In Borneo there are from 30 to 40 pangerans or princes having hereditary rank, a matter which among Malay states materially modifies the character of the government, rendering it in a good measure a sort of aristocracy. The revenue of the king appears to be precarious and uncertain, and consists rather in a voluntary tribute paid by each district in its staple produce, than in a fixed impost either in money or kind. The officers of government and the princes maintain themselves from their own states by petty traffic, a little extortion, and the labour of their slaves, who are numerous.

Its trade is the most important consideration respecting Borneo, and deserves to be considered at more length than the topics which we have just glanced at. The town of Borneo is situated about the 5th degree of north latitude and 15 miles upon a river navigable thus far for vessels of 300 tons burthen and a great way above it for smaller craft. It it built on the banks within high water mark, each house being raised on posts from 1 to 2 fathoms in height and connected with the neighbouring one by a single plank. The fortified palace alone is built on dry land.

From this description of the town, it appears locally well adapted for the conveniences of trade, and the navigation of the roads and river is safe and easy. The latter indeed may be considered, for all useful purposes, the most capacious and serviceable river within the precincts of the Archipelago. Borneo either now or within the last few years has conducted trade with the following countries, viz. China—the Sooloo Islands—the Philippines—the Straits of Malacca—the west coast of the island of Borneo itself, and the Malayan states on the eastern shore of the Peninsula. The trade with China has been interrupted for the last 10 years, owing to the anarchy which has prevailed during that time. When it was in activity the following is a statement of it: Two junks came annually from Siang-hai in the province of Nankeen (Kiang-nan)---two from Limpo in Chang-si---two from Amoy---one from Canton, and two Portuguese ships from Macao. Four of these vessels, it will be observed, came from places in China with which we hold no intercourse in the western parts of the Archipelago. They chiefly imported nankeens and wrought silks. Trade brought to Borneo as it does to every other part of these Islands where there is tolerable security, a large influx of Chinese settlers. These from oppression are now induced to about 500.

No friendly intercourse at present exists between Borneo and Sooloo, on account of an old feud, altho' both countries alike productive, are well suited to be mutually useful to each other. It may here be remarked that the number of Chinese junks in the habit of yearly visiting the Sooloos was seldom less than six and often exceeded eight, coming from the same ports as those which frequented Borneo. Within the last three years this branch of trade

also has been interrupted on account of a quarrel between the Spaniards and the people of Sooloo.

The intercourse between Borneo and Manila was at one period very brisk, but in late years has also, in a great measure been interrupted. The Bornean boats chiefly conducted it, and under favorable circumstances, the voyage from the one place to the other did not exceed seven days.

By far the most considerable trade now conducted by the Borneans, is that with the Straits of Malacca confined at present to Singapore, which was in 1824 visited by about 40 prahus from the ports of Borneo proper.

Europeans have for a number of years forborn to visit Borneo on account of its violent and anarchical government. We believe that European ships might now visit it with perfect safety, owing to the accession of a new and favorable prince, the professions of friendship and desire of trade which have been anxiously held out, and the real benefits which the Borneans themselves have experienced from their commercial intercourse with us, and which they would surely be reluctant to put to any hazard by aggression upon ours. The English indeed have no good reason to complain of the Borneans. They never formed any European alliance but with us, and when the Sooloos, half a century ago, treacherously drove us from Balambangan, it was this people who afforded us an asylum and who proferred us a settlement on the river of Borneo and the Island of Labooan, which we accepted for a season. The present period it may here be noticed, is for a thousand good reasons which will occur to a statesman and merchant, a more favorable one than any former for the success of such an establishment. Were, for example, a post in all respects similar to Singapore formed on the Island of Labooan already mentioned, and which possesses a fine harbour, new sources of trade and wealth would be opened to us, which under existing circumstances we cannot reach or command. Such a port would immediately attract the Chinese trade of Borneo and Sooloo, amounting even under the native government, to fifteen junks a year, and in value, to judge from a similar traffic, to not less in exports than 8 or 900,000 dollars. Through traffic, we should have an intercourse with those great and wealthy provinces of China with which no European nation has at present a direct communication. Such a port would secure to us an easy intercourse with Tonquin, Cochin-China, and Kamboja all the year through, and the usual periodical trade with Siam, an intercourse with which (Singapore being to the west and the new possession to the east) would be secure to us in every season. From a *port so* situated the easiest and cheapest means would be afforded of supplying the whole northern portion of Borneo, the Sooloo, and Philippine Islands, with our manufactures, and *of collecting* the varied products of these countries.

We may pause for a moment to give a brief catalogue of the commodities *suited* to such a market as we have now described, as well as of those which it is capable *of* affording. British or Indian cotton fabrics will form the staple import. Then will follow Opium for the native and Chinese market; woollens for these also; iron; arms and ammunition for the former. The staple native exports are fine camphor—pepper which in *good* times amounted to 20,000 piculs—tortoise shell—esculent nests—sea slug—mother of pearl shells—pearls—sago—woods for dying, for perfumes and for domestic and naval architecture. To these exports would be added through the Chinese trade, teas, wrought and raw silks, nankeens, Chinese camphor, and cassia.

An important fact ought here to be adverted to, that the river of Borneo is the only part of the Indian Archipelago where the Chinese have ever found it practicable and convenient to construct large junks in the same manner as they do at Siam, Saigun, and other ports of their own country. Mr. Jesse, in a most judicious and intelligent account of Borneo rendered to the East India Company in 1775, and in which he suggests that the river is well adapted for ship-building observes, that he saw the keel of a junk of 580 tons burthen laid in the beginning of March which was launched in the end of May. Her whole cost and outfit, although artificers and iron work were brought from China, did not exceed 4,250 Spanish dollars, or about 30 shillings sterling the ton; an example of cheap ship-building quite without a parallel in any other country. The woods made use of in Borneo for ship-building are numerous, but the most important is that of the camphor tree, the dryabalanops camphor. Teak is not found, but the variety of other excellent and durable timber prevents its absence from being felt. From this sketch there can be little question, but European ship-building, an art which from one cause or another, has never prospered in the Indian Islands, might be carried on in Borneo with advantage.

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MEMOIR ON THE RESIDENCY OF THE NORTH-WEST COAST OF BORNEO.

THE writer of the following pages during a trading voyage, made a short stay at Sambas, Mampawa, and Pontianak and having made enquiries respecting the existing state of affairs, was enabled to collect a little information respecting that part of Borneo over which the Residency of the north-west coast claims jurisdiction, its inhabitants and commerce. This information was procured, in the first instance, from the most intelligent natives with whom he had intercourse, and afterwards submitted to the inspection of European gentlemen intimately acquainted with the coasts, who concur in the opinion that the information is correct. He therefore feels confident that although his notices are meagre, yet they are correct enough to afford sufficient data to his readers for judging what reliance can be placed on the inferences respecting the government of this Residency with which he has ventured to close this paper and which are the only parts in the Memoir than can be called his own. And he hopes, however erroneous these may be, that some amusement if not information may be derived from a perusal of this attempt to add to our present scanty knowledge of Borneo. The mode of arrangement and style merit animadversion, but the memoir having been drawn up in the few leisure moments which his business left him, and at times in company, and his having no time to correct its faults, will, the writer hopes, incline those to mercy who may honor it so far as to criticize its merits.

The civilization of the Daya, the extirpation of piracy, the acquisition of revenue, and the appropriation of commercial advantages, may be stated as the most prominent motives which have influenced the Netherlands Government in forming those posts now united under the designation of the North-west coast of Borneo. The Netherlands Government have acquired this portion of their dominions by treaties formed with the native princes since the commencement of 1812. The general principles of these treaties are as follows :—that in consideration of the ports being placed under the immediate control of the European power, and of the Sultaums of Sambas, Mampawa, Pontianak and Matan, not negotiating with other European Governments, or Americans, and using their endeavours to repress piracy, these princes shall be paid a monthly stipend. And the nature of those which have been concluded with the Malayu or Daya* chieftains of the interior is, that their territories shall be administered by the Dutch, and the revenues equally divided.

This Residency is supposed to extend along the coast, from Ayer Hitam, which is considered the southern limit of the territories of Matan, to Palo, the northern boundary of those of Sambas, comprehending these states, those of Pontianak and Mampawa, and some of the petty Chieftainries of the interior, which were not dependant on either of the foregoing powers.

The nature of the country presents almost insuperable obstacles to surveying, but a rough map has been constructed, principally from the observations of the late Mr. Muller† assisted by those of other gentlemen who have travelled in various directions. By this map it would appear that the Residency extends on a rough estimate over nearly one third of the whole island. The face of the country is *generally* low, the Danao Malayu, although forty-five leagues from the nearest part of the coast, being *probably* not more than one hundred feet above the level of the sea. It presents no continuous chain of mountains, the highest land is at the back of Sambas and between that place and Mampawa. From Sambas to Pontianak the country for a little way inland appears from the sea to be irregular and in some places the peaks of the hills are perfectly conical—but it does not appear to be known whether these are of volcanic

* These Daya are partially civilized; they pretend to be Malayu, and of course Islam, but they do not circumcise until they have become parents, and retain many of the customs peculiar to the true Daya.

† This gentleman was formerly in the army of His Netherlands Majesty; but, disgusted at the promotion of junior officers, resigned the service. He was then selected to explore the interior of Borneo. His talents, information, and zeal, rendered him peculiarly adapted for this hazardous undertaking, and his death is a serious loss. When examining the Danao Malayu he conjectured that the river of Koti and Passir might communicate with this lake, and to determine this, he ascended the former river, and at some distance in the interior was murdered by a Daya in whom he too implicitly confided. This occurred in 1825. It is to be hoped that the Government will publish his journals. All the information since collected warrant the supposition that the above rivers have not their source in the lake, but rise in the ranges of mountains at the back of the Banjer-massin district, called by the Malayu, Gunong Malawi Pino.

origin. With the exception of this tract, the Residency is flat, sometimes presenting isolated hills, is intersected by numerous rivers and their tributary streams, and has every appearance of this part of Borneo having been originally an archipelago of numerous small islands*. The principal rivers are those of Sambas, Pontianak, Matan, Succadana, and Mampawa; many others discharge themselves also into the sea. Bars obstruct the entrance of all; on that of Pontianak there are eight feet, of Sambas fifteen, and of Mampawa six feet—these depths are at high water, spring tides and the rise of the tide being from six to eight feet; the rivers at low water are nearly inaccessible excepting to very small craft. After passing the bars the rivers are of considerable depth and wind in graceful curves for some distance from their mouths, before the falls in Malayu Riyam present obstacles to inland navigation. † Those falls are from three to thirty feet in height.

The only lake hitherto discovered is the Danaŏ Malayu, situated in 1° 5' north latitude and 114° 20' east longitude. It was first visited by Europeans in September 1823, when Mr. Hartmann‡ the Resident, and Mr. Grenovians his assistant whose researches have materially assisted in the compilation of the map, had the pleasure of seeing this interesting object. It is about eight leagues in length and four in breadth, and in places has a depth of eighteen feet; these dimensions are considerably increased in the rains. Two islands rise from the surface of its waters and it is stored with numerous fish, among others the biyaivan, the roe of which is in as great demand as the trăbŭ of Siak. Along the shores of the lake and of its islands, rocks are found which present the appearance of having suffered from the action of the sea. The largest island was named Vander Capellen, in compliment to the amiable nobleman who lately governed Java, the smallest, Fobias, after one among the many gentlemen employed as commissioners for the affairs of Borneo.

The soil is *generally* a mould formed partly of alluvial, partly of decayed vegetable matter, about two feet deep placed upon a white clay strongly impregnated with saltpetre.

From the disproportion between the population and the extent of land, little is cultivated; the greater part is still forest. The want of information and the limits of this memoir prevent an enumeration of more of the vegetable productions than those which are particularly useful—Bulliyan (kayu bissi) or iron wood, Tambŭsŭ, Mărbŏ Marante, Sluma, Părā, Madang Chămŭ, Mădang Prawas, Păniyao, Tăkăm or Kawan, Batu, Angsuna or Bawan Hutan, and Ghiam—are the Malayu names of trees of large size, which afford excellent timber for house and ship building. The Kapur is used for these purposes and produces the camphor of commerce; Kranji, and Arang or ebony, form articles of export, as do the oil used for culinary purposes, which is expressed from the fruit of the Tankawan tree; and the dammar and kuning oils. Rattans are abundant and of pretty good quality; the best are collected at Kotaringan, which belongs to Matan.

The whole of Borneo is rich in mineral productions; those which have received attention in this Residency are diamonds, gold and iron.

The principal diamond mines are in the district of Landak. ‖ The Arèng (conglo-

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* This hypothesis is deduced from the following fact—the hills are similar to the islands along the coast in appearance and structure, the soil is generally similar to the bottom of the sea,—rocks which appear to have been exposed to a surf are found in the interior, and the low land along the coast has advanced considerably since the establishment of the European posts.

† The following is the mode in which the inland trade is conducted. Randongs, which are long narrow boats drawing little water, and entirely covered in with matting, proceed as far as the falls permit, where the cargo is discharged into bedars or small sampangs. When these meet a riyam, the cargo as well as the bedar is carried over land until past the fall.

Some of the petty chiefs prohibit the traders from the lower part of their waters from carrying their goods through their districts, and require them to be sold there, when the people of the district carry them farther up: this exists in almost every district. The whole of the inland trade is by barter; however, each article is valued in rials, an imaginary coin of two rupees, although money is almost invariably refused by the Daya for those goods they may have for sale.

‡ Strangers visiting Pontianak are under considerable obligation to this gentleman for his kindness and hospitality. Merchants are particularly so, for his endeavours to facilitate their business, by pointing out the natives most likely to deal, and those who cannot be trusted. The same may be said of his assistants at Sambas and Mampawa, Messrs. Ritters and Duitters. As a public officer Mr. Hartmann is deservedly held in high estimation by his countrymen and Government. The writer requests these gentlemen to receive his thanks for their polite attention.

‖ The principal village called also Landak is situated about twenty two leagues from Pontianak, in a N. E. by E. direction. It is one of the principal stations for conducting the inland trade in this part of the Residency. The voyage from Pontianak occupies about five days, the tide flowing no higher than about twelve miles above that town. The sinuosities of the river are however the principal cause of the duration of the voyage: An assistant Resident is posted at Landak, which is accounted peculiarly unhealthy.

merati ?) in which the diamonds are found is a kind of yellowish gravelly earth mixed with pebbles of various sizes and shapes, and is found at different depths below the surface. From fifty to sixty feet is the greatest depth to which a shaft has hitherto been sunk; and the following, it is said, are the strata which are dug through when the Aréng is at these depths: three feet black mould, seventeen yellow sandy clay, seventeen redder clay, six or seven of a tenacious slate colored clay mixed with stones, an equal depth of a similar clay without stones, but mixed with pebbles, and known by the name of Amper, and six or seven of a tenacious yellow clay.

The presence of the Amper strata is considered a sure indication of a vein.

The mines are worked by the Daya, Malayu and Chinese. The former proceed in the following manner. A shaft barely sufficient to permit the miner to turn round in, or at utmost two feet in diameter, is sunk to the Aréng. This is from one to three feet in thickness, and is dug out to the extent of seven or eight feet from the sides of the shaft, under the upper strata, which sometimes is propped up; but the laziness or improvidence of the Daya is such, that this precaution is often forgotten, the upper strata falls in and the miners miserably perish. These accidents * most frequently occur when an adjacent shaft is sunk, which is thus done: The Aréng in the first mine being expended, and the course of the vein ascertained, a new shaft is sunk in that direction at the distance of fifteen or sixteen feet from the preceding, to enable the miners when arrived at the Aréng, to work back to their former mine, and the same process is repeated until the vein be exhausted. The Aréng is hoisted up in small baskets by bamboos on the ends of which part of a branch is left and forms a small hook. The search for the diamonds is conducted in an equally simple manner. Small dulans, circular trays slightly converging towards the centre, are nearly filled with Aréng; and the Daya sitting himself in the nearest stream immerses the dulan, and works the Aréng by hand until the earthy particles begin to separate; the dulan is then brought to the surface, and a rotatory motion is given to it, until the water it contains being saturated with earthy matter, is poured off and this is continued till such time as the water comes away clean. The pebbles &c. which remain in the centre, then undergo a strict examination.

The Malayu proceed in nearly a similar manner; but the superior intelligence of the Chinese teaches them to use a more efficient progress. The Chinese seldom sink a shaft, but avail themselves of those which have been sunk and the mines abandoned by the Daya or Malayu. A tank is formed or a small stream is dammed up; and a channel being cut in the direction of the vein, the sluices are opened, and the superior strata are entirely cleared away by the velocity of the stream, and the Aréng being discovered the sluice is shut. The Aréng having been dug out is washed, by exposure to the repeated action of water conducted along wooden troughs fixed in an inclined plane, and not cleaned in the dulan, until the stony particles are nearly freed from extraneous matter.

The largest diamond known with certainty to have been found in these mines weighed thirty-six carats. It was long supposed that the Sultan of Matan possessed one weighing three hundred and sixty-seven, which it was said he was afraid to cut lest it should prove flawed, but gentlemen to whom it has been lately shewn consider it not to be a true stone.

Formerly, if the labors of the miners were rewarded by success, which is very uncertain, stones under four carats were their property; all of that size and upwards were claimed by the Panambahan, then a tributary of Bantam, from the Sultan of which state the former Dutch Company purchased this monopoly or royalty, for fifty thousand dollars. At present, by treaty with the Panambahan, all the stones must be delivered to Government at twenty per cent below the market price which is ascertained by appraisement on the spot, the necessary advances being of course first made to miners by Government. The small stones are sold at Pontianak and the large ones, for which there are no purchasers there, are disposed of at Batavia, and the profits equally divided between Government and the Panambahan. There is every reason to believe that in the first year and a half succeeding this arrangement, which was made in the middle of 1823, these amounted to about nineteen thousand guldens, three hundred and ninety carats having been delivered to the agents of Government in the latter part of 1823, and nineteen hundred in 1824, the cost of which must have been thirty three thousand guldens, and the proceeds fifty two thousand. The existing regulations are no doubt as

* One occurred about twenty seven years since, when sixteen men employed by a person named Haji Mahomet Saily were killed, while working a rich vein at Bu a Malingang. More recent instances might be adduced, but this is preferred as having been related by the Haji's grand-son, an intelligent man from whom the principal part of the information respecting the mines was procured, and its correctness ascertained, by reference to gentlemen, who had been either employed at, or visited this district.

often evaded as that mentioned above must have been, and if such be the case, two thousand two hundred and ninety carats are less than the actual produce of the period in question. The number of persons employed during it, is unknown, so that no idea can be formed of the profit on mining speculations.* The deliveries of 1825 and 1826 were less than that of 1824 and will be still less this year, Government not advancing to an equal extent, in consequence partly of an outstanding balance against the miners, and partly to the disinclination of the latter to receive copper money. Some natives are of opinion that the veins are not so productive as in former times; others, making due allowance for the decrease occasioned by the measures of Government, say that they are not worked with equal zeal.

Gold is found in almost every part of the Residency, also in the Arèng strata and takes many names, being invariably designated by the name of the place where it is procured. The gold of Sintang, Sangão, and Landak are about nine touch; of Muntubari about eight and a half, that of Mandor a shade below eight; these are places under Pontianak. That found at Mantradu under Mampawa is about eight touch; and under Sambas, gold of nine touch is found; at Sapan of eight; and eight a half at Larak; of eight, at Siminis; and of seven and a half at Salakao. The mines are worked in a similar manner to those already described and the Areng cleaned in the dulan, in the centre of which, the gold, from its greater gravity is collected. There are no data for ascertaining the amount produced, † or the number of persons employed. The price at the principal ports may be taken at about two dollars and ninety cents per touch; or say, twenty six Spanish dollars for Sintang gold of nine touch. The Sultaun of Sambas has in his possession a lump weighing twelve and a half bunkals, and says he has seen some which weighed twenty five.

Iron is principally procured from Jellè in the interior of Matan, in sufficient quantities to form an article of export, when it is known by the name of Bissi ikat, from the manner in which it is made up. Ten pieces, each piece about eight or nine inches long, one and a half broad and half an inch thick, form a small bundle; and five of these a large one, which weighs about nineteen or twenty catties, and sells at Matan for about three dollars. It is collected by the Daya, and is of superior quality, as tools made of it are not steeled, and is in great demand among the natives. It is imported advantageously at Pontianak both from Matan and from Banjer-massin, at which place it is known by the name of Bissi desa, or country iron.

The animal productions which add to the exports of this Residency are wax, bezoar stones and deer horns, but very little bird's nest is found. The wax is of good quality when collected by the Daya who find the hives most commonly on the katapan tree; but, passing through many hands before exported, it is then generally adulterated. The bezoar stones or Batu Galiga, the Daya allege are collected by them from the muscular parts of animals, particularly the porcupine (Landak) ‡ and the various species of Simia, and they conceive that they are produced by wounds received from other animals especially the wild hog and Simia. On the coast, this account appears to be believed, although contrary to the received opinion that the bezoar is produced in the stomachs of certain ruminating animals.

No meteorological journal has been kept; but, to judge from personal feeling, the climate must be very warm. Thus, the dense forests, and extensive marshes, would warrant the inference that the Residency is unhealthy, but it is considered otherwise, with the exception of the diamond district. The prevalent diseases are diarrœhia, dysentery, remittent and intermittent fevers, dropsical, rheumatic and bilious complaints, small pox and the lues venerea. While the Cholera morbus raged, it made dreadful ravages. Once at Pontianak the whole garrison were attacked, and the Resident, who fortunately escaped, was the only person to administer the usual remedies.

It cannot be expected that the local authorities should have been able to draw up a census of the population, when it is remembered that the most numerous portion are either independent savages, or Chinese in open revolt,—but it is probable that the whole population of this extensive tract does no exceed 400,000 souls.

* The grandson of Haji Mahomet Sally once expended between 5 and 600 dollars in employing 36 men nearly five months, and was unsuccessful and says that he has known other persons possessed of greater means disburse treble that amount without success.

† The amount of gold produced is supposed to be about 1½ picul or some bunkals.

‡ The best are procured from the porcupine, and in the district of Landak.

The most numerous class are the Daya,* who may be estimated at 200,000. They are principally employed in collecting the useful products of their forests, mining, and the cultivation of their ladangs. A small strip of coarse cotton cloth (barely sufficient to cover those parts nature teaches them to conceal) called a chawat, which is often made of bark, and sometimes a kind of waistcoat, and head handkerchief, forms their dress; beads and brass-wire their ornaments, salt their luxury, tobacco their passion, and iron is necessary for their tools and arms. These articles are taken to them from the lower parts of the rivers, and from the mode in which the inland trade is conducted the consumer pays enormously for them in the produce of his industry; for instance, in some places one measure of salt costs twenty of rice. The Daya are, generally speaking, peaceable; the petty feuds among themselves may be traced to the horrid custom of ornamenting their houses with human skulls, procured by way-laying individuals of a different tribe, and to decorating their children with the teeth; or to disputes about particular tracts of forests;—and the oppression of the Chinese sometimes rouses them to revenge themselves against that race.

It is considered more honorable that the skulls should be those of women or children on the supposition that the men would exert themselves for their protection; but it is seldom they are procured by open attack, the general practice when operations are carried on to a considerable extent, being to surround a village during the night and murder those who have occasion to leave it at break of day. Some of those who are found about the ports to the northward of Sambas, at times connect themselves with the pirates, and the condition of the connexion is, that the skulls and iron shall be their share—the other plunder that of the pirates.

The next most numerous class are the Chinese; some rate them at no more than 35,000 men, others, as high as 72,000—but probably 50,000 may be near the amount, and, as the greater number are not married, nor have children, the total number of Chinese men, women and children may be about 125,000. Their principal establishments are at Măndor, Mintradu, Salakao, Larak and Sinkawan in the interior; but the whole coast, from the river of Sambas to Pontianak, is lined with their establishments. Their towns are described as populous and well laid out. They are principally emigrants, from that part of the province of Kuang-tong, whose inhabitants are known in the Straits by the appellation of Orang Khĕ, or their descendants by the Daya women. Formerly, about 3000 arrived annually; of late, in consequence of the disturbances, not more than a third of that number. They are described as turbulent and difficult to govern; but may not this be attributed to the change they have experienced between the present and former Governments? The only direct tax under the native government, was a small tribute or Bungamas, collected from those who had a certain employment; now, all, whether employed or not, are expected to pay two guldens for a license to settle, an annual capitation tax of the same amount per head, to contribute to the support of various

* The villages of these savages are mostly placed near spots fit for their ladangs, and are generally protected by a beinting or breastwork. The houses are built with a long verandah in front, which serves for communicating with the different families and for the several fire places. There are mostly three ladders, which are pulled up at night. From six to seven families reside in one house, the patriarch in the middle, in whose apartment the musical instruments are kept. The houses are built upon posts, and in the space below, the pigs &c. are reared. Among the customs peculiar to them, it may be expected that something respecting the decapitation of heads should be mentioned. The more heads a man has cut off, the more he is respected, and a young man cannot marry until he can produce heads procured by himself; nor can the corpse of a person of rank be interred until a fresh head be acquired by his nearest kin. Should he be of high rank, great rejoicings take place on his return from a successful expedition; the heads, which probably still bleed, are seized by the women, who rush into the water, dip the heads and anoint themselves with the ensanguined water which drops from the skulls. A man of *great consideration* may have 50 or 60 skulls suspended in his premises. It has been known that two years have expired before a young man could be married, or, in other words, before he could procure a skull. The following are the customs observed on the conclusion of peace between two hostile tribes. Each provides a slave to be murdered by the other, and the principal person present gives the first wound, which is inflicted on the lower part and in the centre of the breast bone. The other persons of the tribe who may be present immediately follow the example, and fathers encourage their children to mutilate the body with their knives or whatever weapon they can acquire. The slaves sacrificed to peace are not criminals, but generally purchased for this purpose. Besides this, presents are interchanged: these are provisions, gold dust to the value of a few rupees, and Siamese earthen jars, which are highly valued, as the priests use them as oracles, striking them and predicting according to the sound which may be elicited. Peace is generally concluded at the chief village or town of the most powerful tribe. It was thus that a feud which had existed 5 years between the Sintang and Sakado Daya was terminated in 1826, since when they have been on amicable terms. The principal Daya are those of Kayang whose principal town is Sepao, which is about 25 days journey by water above Sintang, and the latter is about 14 inland in Pontianak. Seven different dialects are known to exist among the Daya of this Presidency. Far in the interior the only trace of religion appears to be in a superstitious reverence paid to deer, which are considered to be the progenitors of the Daya, and this animal is therefore not killed, or eaten by them. The high caste Daya do not engage in mining as they fancy it may induce misfortune on their country.

farms during their stay, and finally, thirty guldens to quit the country. These impositions on the valuable part of the community, a class who know their own value and strength, naturally render them dissatisfied; yet, notwithstanding such just cause for dissatisfaction, there seems no doubt that the views of Government might have been accomplished, had these been gradually carried into execution in a mild and consistent manner, and not, at one time by threats, at another, by negotiation, and then again by force. The most probable mode of deriving a revenue from them appears to be by a transit duty on the articles of their consumption, leaving the internal regulation of their settlements to themselves; and by requiring an assessment from each establishment in proportion to its population, to be levied by the kongsies or chiefs. To an arrangement of this description they would have no objection. The men and women are clothed in the costume of China, their apparel being made of coarse blue and white piece goods; besides these however, they require a few kurwahs. for sacrifices; and they consume opium, Chinese and Javanese tobacco, pulse, (kachang) cocoanut oil, iron, and a few articles from China. They are employed in mining, agriculture, manufacturing coarse sugar; those near the sea, in fishing; and, in the principal ports, as artificers and petty merchants.

The Malayu are estimated at about 60,000 souls. The men are variously employed, as foresters, agriculturists, miners, or, in maritime pursuits.

The Ugi men, women, and children, may be 5000 in number: the greater part settled at Pontianak. They are mostly from Waju, in the interior of Celebes; and among them are individuals possessed of 80 or 90,000 dollars. The trade of Pontianak is principally in their hands, and they are only second to the Chinese, as a valuable portion of the community.

There are a few Arabs and their descendants, whose number may be taken at 600. Of natives of India, there cannot be more than 50.

In additon to the articles mentioned as consumed by the Daya and Chinese, the Malayu, Ugi, and Arabs require a few finer Indian and European piece goods, Celebean and Javanese ditto, raw silk, manufactured silks, and a little broad cloth.

Agriculture affords but little to pay for these articles. Rice, indeed, is sometimes exported, but it is a query whether more be produced than sufficient for home consumption, as at times, it forms an article of import. It is cultivated both in the ladang, or upland plantations, and in the sawah or marsh lands; in the former, by the Daya; in the latter, by the Chinese. The ladangs are permitted to lie fallow three years; the growing jungle has then attained sufficient size to afford the necessary manure when cut down and burnt. Both ladang and sawah plantations are considered moderately productive, but, in some seasons, the growing crops suffer much from vermin. Sugar manufactured by the Chinese, from cane cultivated by themselves, is also exported; but in very small quantities.

From the foregoing brief notices of the productions of this Residency and the wants of the inhabitants, it will be perceived that the imports are opium, piece goods, iron, tobacco, * salt, silk raw and manufactured, pulse, oil, and a few Chinese goods; the principal returns for which are gold, diamonds, wax, rattans, dammer, wood and tankawan oils, with a little rice and coarse sugar.

This trade is principally in the hands of the Ugi, who either conduct it in their own craft, or deal with trading vessels touching at the ports; the Arabs and Malayu participate, and the trade with China is carried on in the junks which annually arrive to the number of perhaps six. It is asserted that commerce is much on the decline; and this is attributed to the following cause: To the eastward the imports are similar to those of these ports, and formerly Sambas, Mampawa, and Pontianak, were emporia for part of the eastern trade; this branch of course has ceased since the establishment of Singapore; and the remaining branch, or that which supplies the wants of the Residency, has suffered from the disturbances having taught the Chinese to depend less upon foreign supplies. Again, the duties which are levied are much greater than in former times, and as the consequent enhancement in the price of goods, from this and other fiscal regulations, is not understood by the Daya, they do not purchase to an equal amount, and of course have not equal inducement to industrious pursuits.

* Although no advocate for monopolies, more especially of articles of food, the writer would be wrong in omitting to mention the facilities that Government affords to the trade in their own salt to the dependencies of Java. Salt is put on board prahus from the outposts, free of boat or cooly hire, and a bounty of fifteen rupees per Java koyan granted to the exporter who is further given a credit when furnished with the necessary documents from the local authorities at the outpost to which he purposes carrying his cargo.

The introduction also of copper money* and that at an increased valuation has tended to paralize industry—or, in other words, to decrease trade.

With the decrease of trade, the revenue has decreased; it now amounts to about nine thousand guldens per mensem, and is derived from the capitation tax on the Chinese, a fee for permitting them to settle, one for a license to quit the country; the pork, fish, arrack, prepared opium, Chinese gambling, and betel farms; the profits arising from the monopoly of the diamonds, post-office and vendu departments, harbour dues, customs, stamps, and a tax on the transfer of property.

The current expenses of the Residency, excluding the interest on those of the wars with the Chinese and on the dead stock, may be estimated at forty five thousand guldens; from this, the average revenue being deducted, it would appear that Government sustains an actual monthly loss of thirty four thousand guldens in keeping up this Residency.

Have any of the objects of Government in forming these outposts been realized in any degree sufficient to counterbalance this enormous expense? Truth requires a negative reply to this question.

Commerce is one of the principal means appointed by Providence for civilizing mankind, and is the only one which has hitherto operated in partially civilizing those Daya who are not equally savage with their brethren. The inland trade is notoriously less than heretofore, and therefore it is not uncharitable to conclude that the Daya are generally as barbarous as when the Netherlands commenced administering the government. The pirates established to the northward of Sambas, and those of Kayong in the interior of Matan commit as many depredations as ever and in as daring a manner. The state of the revenue has been shewn; and the small trade carried on with Java and its dependencies, cannot be considered as securing any peculiar commercial advantages; as the few articles imported from these parts would have been introduced had the European power not been established.

A mistaken line of policy can be the only cause of the failure, and were the writer capable of treating on these subjects he would attempt to point out a remedy. As it is, although aware of his inability, he ventures to hazard the following remarks, on the supposition that it be determined to retain these establishments, and he trusts that should this memoir be read by any of the officers of the Netherlands Government, they will believe his assertion that they are dictated by an anxious wish to be of service.

When the Government acquired the right to frame fiscal regulations, the trade was free to all flags, and it may be thought that their contracts with the native powers did not authorize an alteration. Be this as it may, reverting to that system, and levying a small and equal duty on all the trade, would conduce to its increase. Doing away with some of the farms, especially those on what are absolute necessaries, such as pork, fish, and betel, and which add but little to the revenue, and placing those which might be retained on a new footing, appear desirable measures. For instance, at present, opium pays a duty of 350 guldens per chest, whatever may be the value, must be bonded, and cannot be sold unless to the prepared opium farm, which is for the whole Residency. Might not the trade in opium, unless in smaller quantities, be opened, and separate farms established wherever the European power is paramount? It is true that the farms *might* fall; but the duty on opium would be increased, and a small transit duty on the introduction if it in the interior would be equivalent to the paltry gain now derived from the prepared opium, which is sent to those places which are not actually under the control of Government. Formerly similar measures would have been considered injurious to the revenue, but at the present day, experience shews that such views are erroneous; and that a decrease of duty on any particular branch of trade, increases† the revenue derived from

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* To prevent a recurrence to the subject of copper money in the body of the memoir, it may be well to mention that no other description of coin is sent to meet the expenses of Government, and that although 125 doits can be procured for a gulden, 100 are the number assigned by the orders of Government, dated the 18th Feb. 1826 No. 1, as equivalent to that coin.

† That the reduction of exorbitant duties on articles in general demand, has the effect of causing such an increased consumption as will lead to an increase of the revenue, cannot be more forcibly illustrated than by a reference to the history of the coffee trade of Great Britain, and that reference cannot be better made than by laying before the reader the following passage from an able paper on the subject in the Edinburgh Review. "Previously," says the writer, "to 1783, the various custom and excise duties on coffee consumed in Great Britain, amounted to no less than 480 per cent, on its then average price! In consequence of this enormous duty almost all the coffee made use of was clandestinely imported; and the duties produced only the trifling sum of £2,862 10s. 6d. a year. In 1783, however, Mr. Pitt reduced the duties to about *one third* of their former amount. Now mark the effect of this wise and politic measure. Instead of sustaining any diminution, the revenue

it, and prevents‡ smuggling, upon which heavy duties act as a premium. The writer is confident that such an approximation to free trade as he has suggested would promote commerce and increase the revenue.

Under this arrangement the increase of trade would give a new impetus to the industry of the Daya; and when the more flourishing state of the revenue permits the use of other means than commerce for their civilization, some portion might be devoted to the purchase of foreign articles in request among them, to be given in consideration of their opening roads through the Residency or employing their extra time on works of public utility. By this, the taste for these articles would be increased, their industry excited, and the resources of the country better developed.

However great these resources may be, the population is insufficient to render them beneficial, and in consequence, another needful measure might be the introduction of emigrants from other parts. Here the superabundant population of China, probably the most useful race of Asiatics to be found in the Malayan Archipelago, presents itself to view. Might not the Chinese be encouraged to settle by treating them in a less vexatious manner? Let no fee be demanded on their settling or their departure, nor a capitation tax during their stay, nor any other marked distinction be drawn between them and the other members of the community, and there can be no doubt they would flock in greater numbers than ever, and would conduct themselves in as peaceable a manner as in other parts. It may be apprehended that they would render themselves masters of the island; but, the consideration of the dependence of those who are at present settled there, on foreign supply, of their knowledge of that dependence, and of their known tractability under a mild government, seems sufficient to remove such apprehensions. An increase in the Chinese population would cause greater activity in trade and increase the revenue.

The question of the best mode of extirpating piracy has been so often agitated in the public prints that it is unnecessary to swell the limits of this memoir by entering into a detail on this head. A reference to these will shew that preventive measures appear the most efficacious; to be effected principally by a more efficient marine, than that generally employed on this service.‖

Having stated the grounds on which he has ventured to impugn the policy of the present system, and hazarded a few suggestions for its amelioration, it may be permitted the writer to close this memoir by expressing his fervent wishes for the prosperity of the Residency and by recording his firm conviction that if the Government of Netherlands India would attain the objects which he has supposed have originated these establishments, it must be by adopting a more liberal policy. This might be effected by carrying into execution the propositions of the last Commissioner, Mr. Diard, as from personal knowledge of that gentleman, and the opportunities he must have had of acquiring the necessary information for framing an able report, the writer has no doubt the measures he has proposed, would improve the condition of the Residency and lead to the accomplishment of the wishes of the Commissioner General for the prosperity of this portion of his Government, a portion which might be made one of the richest jewels in the crown of the Netherlands.

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was immediately increased to nearly *three* times its former amount, or to £ 7,200. 15s. 9d shewing that the consumption of legally imported coffee must have increased in about a *ninefold* proportion! A striking and conclusive proof, as Mr. Bryan Edwards has observed, of the effect of heavy taxation in defeating its own object."

‡ One of the principal Ugi at Poptianak told a Commissioner, that his circumstances placed him above the temptation to embark in illicit speculations, but he felt assured that, should the present system be persisted in, his descendants would have no hesitation to engage in contraband trade.

As mentioned in the memoir, many rivers discharge themselves into the sea and afford great facility for smuggling; many of these are on either side of Mampawa, and as this post is disadvantageously situated, the soil not permitting the sinking of wells, at particular seasons it is necessary to send three hours up the river for water; it might be advisable to remove it to Pulo Tomaja, which commands the coast and affords good anchorage close to the shore.

‖ The present coast marine consists of four gunboats, of such a construction as to be only fitted to lie along side of fortifications, in smooth water. When placed in such a situation as at Palembang and Mampawa they have done good service. But they are utterly unfit for the pursuit of pirate prahus and afford the officers in command of them no opportunity of shewing their zeal for the service. They were constructed for the Palembang affair, and should be condemned and replaced by other vessels better calculated for the coast.

The present Sultan of Sambas is the person whose piracies caused the British to attack Sambas in 1814. Many anecdotes, are told of his generous actions while a pirate, which would be interesting if collected and would afford an amusement and occupation for his leisure hours to any Dutch gentleman, who might feel inclined to undertake the task.

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TRADE WITH THE WEST COAST OF BORNEO.

THE commerce between Singapore and the West Coast of the island of Borneo is carried on with the various native ports in the country of Borneo Proper, situated between Tanjong Dattoo and the northern extremity of the island, and with the Dutch Settlements of Sambas, Mampawa and Pontianak. The whole of this trade is conducted by Malays and Bugis, in prows belonging to the different ports from whence they come, of from 300 to 1200 piculs burthen.

The prows from *Borneo Proper* are chiefly of the burthen of from 800 to 1200 piculs—they carry from 40 to 60 men each, and are, like most other native vessels, well-armed with long brass guns, (lelas) as well as with spears, swords, and other small arms. About *fifteen* or *twenty* of these vessels trade with this port, and generally make two voyages in the course of the year. Their imports principally consist of pepper—camphor—bees' wax—birds' nests—tortoise shell—mother of pearl shells—and pearls; and each cargo, according to the size of the vessel, is said to be worth from 2,000 to 8,000 Spanish dollars. These cargoes they very readily dispose of here to the resident Chinese merchants, in barter for blue and white Madras cloths—Bengal chintzes and white goods—*Europe* chintzes and long cloths—iron—steel—cotton twist, in blue, red and white—blue and yellow nankeens—Chinese gold thread &c. These traders take no opium, as that drug is not allowed to be used by any of the natives of Borneo Proper.

From the particulars we have been able to collect from the Chinese merchants who deal with these people, and from the traders themselves, we should think that the annual amount of our trade with the natives of that part of the island, does not fall short of 60,000 or 70,000 Spanish dollars.

Our trade with the three Dutch settlements however, is much more considerable. From *Sambas* about *fifteen* or *twenty* prows visit us every six months, each bringing from 60 to 500 bunkals of gold dust, according to the means of the trader. The Sambas prows bring scarcely any thing else besides gold dust, on account of the heavy duties upon all other articles exported to a British port. From *Mampawa* and *Pontianak* about twenty or thirty prows come here twice a year, with gold dust—diamonds—tin, and rattans. The export duty on all articles from these places, exported to a British settlement, is 12 per cent. except on gold and diamonds, which are free. The different cargoes from these settlements are said to vary in value from 2,000 to 20,000 dollars, and we are told that not less than fifty separate arrivals take place in the course of the year. If we take the number of arrivals at fifty, and the value of each cargo at 5,000 dollars, which we believe is considerably under the average, the annual value of imports from these three settlements will amount to not less a sum than 250,000 Spanish dollars.

In return, these traders chiefly take Bengal and Madras piece goods and iron. They take no British manufactured cottons and no opium, in consequence of the *protection* the Dutch kindly give to the trade of the mother country and her colonies by their prohibitory duties. With the view, no doubt of confining the trade of the various Dutch settlements with each other, and of preventing any part of it from falling into the hands of the English, they have very wisely imposed a duty of 35 per cent. on all British manufactured cottons imported from any British possession, knowing the predilection of all the natives for British goods, and thinking probably that they will be compelled to go to Java for them, where they know they cannot be obtained previous to their having paid to the government of Java an import duty of 30 per cent., in addition to which the native trader is compelled to pay an export duty of 6 per cent. or expecting, probably, that they will invest the proceeds of their cargoes in Netherlands manufactures. At all events the system which is pursued by the Dutch, is expected to have the salutary effect of keeping the trade of their numerous settlements in their own hands, so that they may reap the exclusive benefit of all the commerce which is carried on by the inhabitants of the various stations under the government. To effect this, every obstacle is thrown in the way of these people trading with us, for although the Dutch authorities cannot refuse them a port-clearance for Singapore, yet they annoy them by every means in their power, and use every effort to induce them go to Java, so that it has now become a common practice with these

people, to clear out for Samarang, Grissee, or some other port in Java. Even this however, does not exempt them from paying the same export duties as if they cleared for Singapore; for the Dutch have found from experience that notwithstanding their regularly clearing outwards for a Dutch port, still they invariably return from Singapore. The natives have been driven to this expedient in order, in some measure, to avoid the annoyances to which they were subjected when they openly declared that they intended to proceed to this place, to escape which, they most willingly pay the duty thus exacted from them by those who wish to be considered as the protectors of commerce. The trade in opium being entirely monopolized by the Dutch governments, the drug is of course not allowed to be imported by the natives on any terms.

The system of imposing enormous duties and prohibitions on one particular branch of trade with the view of benefiting another, is very seldom if ever, the means of producing the effect intended, but, on the contrary, is almost uniformly attended with very pernicious consequences to the general commerce of the places where it is pursued, as it necessarily tends to turn the industry of the people out of its natural channel. This, indeed is the consequence of the Dutch policy in India, and it is well known that it has not been the means of promoting the prosperity of either the governors or governed. From the preceding observations it will be seen that the commercial regulations in force at their settlements on Borneo are not very well calculated to answer the purposes for which they were established, for if they produced the desired effects, we should never see a single prow, from any of those settlements, in this place; and as to their benefiting the home manufactures, we cannot see in what way they do so, for they are not the means of inducing, much less of compelling, one additional prow to go to any port where a single piece of the Netherlands manufactures is to be had; and such, we are told, is the distaste for those goods amongst the natives, that the few prows which *usually* trade with the ports of Java, never purchase one piece, and there is not such a *thing to be* seen, by any chance, either in Sambas, Mampawa or Pontianak. These regulations, *no doubt*, tend to prevent the introduction of British cottons into those places; but we are not aware that this circumstance is of any material advantage to the Dutch, as Indian piece goods, from the British presidencies of Bengal and Madras, are imported by the natives instead of them, from the British settlement of Singapore. Indian piece goods imported from a British port, certainly pay double duties in a Dutch port, but the natives, no doubt, find it much more advantageous to trade with us and pay a duty of 12 per cent, on the goods they take back, than traffick with the Dutch on their own terms, or they would not continue to carry on such an extensive trade with this port; and if the Dutch were to lower the duty on British manufactures to 12 per cent, also, there is little doubt but their finances, which we believe are not in the most prosperous state, would soon feel the benefit of the measure, and it could not possibly injure their trade in the manufactures of the mother country, as no such trade exists. As to the opium monopoly, there is no question but that if the trade in that article were placed on the same footing as other Indian produce, that the revenue arising from the exclusive trade would speedily be very considerably increased. From every thing we can learn, the consumption of opium in Sambas, Pontianak and Mampawa, and their dependencies is very considerable, altho' the Government disposes of but a very few chests, not more in the whole three settlements, it is said, than twenty or thirty chests annually. If this branch of trade were placed on the same footing as Indian piece goods, we are told, that not less than 400 chests annually would be legally imported into those places, and a duty of 12 per cent cheerfully paid, instead of which, we suspect, (although it does not appear in the list of exports from this place) that an immense quantity is now smuggled, from which, of course, no revenue is derived. If an *ad valorem* duty of 12 per cent were levied on all that would be imported, it would *doubtless* amount to considerably more than the profits arising from the disposal of a *few chests*, and it would also prevent smuggling; so that the abolition of the monopoly *would* be beneficial to both the Government and the people, as it would increase the revenue *of the* one, and give a fresh stimulus to the honest industry of the other. We cannot *prevail* upon ourselves however, with so many examples before our eyes, even to indulge a *hope, that* the Dutch Government will ever be induced by any consideration to abandon a *line* of policy which they must have been long aware, is alike injurious to their own interests and to that of those over whom they rule.

(Published in the Singapore Chronicle, November 1829.)

MR. DALTON'S PAPERS ON BORNEO. &c..

ON THE PRESENT STATE OF PIRACY, AMONGST THESE ISLANDS, AND THE BEST METHOD OF ITS SUPPRESSION.

"How doth the Crafty Fox beguile the Lion."

OLD PLAY.

IT is a well known and deplorable fact, that within the last ten or a dozen years, Piracy has, in various parts of this Archipelago, encreased in a frightful manner; what was formerly considered merely predatory excursions has now become a trade, and is at this moment carried on so systematically by the principal Bugis rajahs and chiefs inhabiting the most prominent parts of the various coasts, along which trading vessels must pass to and from European Settlements, that strong measures are loudly called for to protect the native vessels, and such of the small traders as are honestly inclined. The establishment of Singapore, free of duties, and the known facility with which the native population can transact business at that port have created an unusual sensation amongst all ranks of people; even the Diaks in the centre of Borneo and those of Celebes are aware of its establishment and advantages. On the eastern coast of Borneo, from point Salatan to the Sooloo Islands, an extent of little less than one thousand miles, new prows are building in almost every creek; the same on the western coast of Celebes, where the inhabitants, generally speaking, are much more enlightened, enterprizing and industrious. In all parts of both these coasts, the natives are moving from the interior districts, towards the sea; in hopes of participating in the benefits so plainly derived by those who have prows to Singapore. Ten years ago, no Diak under the rank of Rajah wore a sarong; whereas at present, near the coast, few even of the poorest class are seen without them; at Marpow, a campong situate, via the river, at least 570 miles from the sea and containing a population of 7000 inhabitants, seven out of every ten wear them, and the women will likewise have a smart body dress of woollen cloth. No person would be without articles of European or Bengal manufacture if they could be procured at a reasonable rate, but a Bugis trader thinks little of asking a picul of bees' wax, of 120 catties, for a common English sarong, or cloth sufficient to make a baju. Formerly the Bugis rajahs prohibited all Diaks wearing dress of any description; a present of a piece of red cloth, and a sarong, with permission to wear them were occasionally given to the chiefs and their wives as marks of particular favor; but since the establishment of Singapore these rajahs are, the principal traders, and a Diak has now nothing to do but climb a tree, and gather the wax to ensure himself and family articles of clothing and the luxuries of salt and tobacco.

The population on the coast of these large islands, viz. Borneo and Celebes, is immense; generally speaking they are not poor, on the contrary, with few exceptions are rich, in those productions most valued by Europeans;—all they desire is the opportunity of exchanging; this at present cannot be done, as they are compelled to sell their produce to some neighbouring rajah or rich Bugis for what he thinks proper to give them; a few of these rajahs, and principal men combine, and then get nearly every article into their hands. These are all pirates who paralyze the exertions of thousands of individuals who would be otherwise active; no inhabitants dare send out a vessel larger than a fishing boat without express permission; such a circumstance would not only end in the massacre or slavery of all on board, but must infallibly draw down upon the campong in which he lived, the vengeance of the pirate; neither could the rajah of that part of the coast, in which the campong was situate assist them, as one powerful pirate will keep in awe a long line of coast.

In November 1827, a principal chief of pirates named Sindana, made a descent upon Mamoodgoo with forty-five prows, burnt three-fourths of a campong, driving the rajah with his family, amongst the mountains. Some scores of men were killed and three hundred made prisoners, besides women and children to half that amount. In December following when I was there, the people were slowly returning from the hills, but had not yet attempted to rebuild the campong which lay in ashes. The great fault of Koning the Mamoodjoo rajah appeared to be his friendly intention towards Europeans. During my stay there (ten weeks) the place was visited by two other piratical chiefs, one of which was from Kylie, the other from Mandhaar point, under BEM BOWAN, who appeared to have charge of the whole; between them they had one hundred and thirty-four prows of all sizes. The Kylie rajah who first arrived, fired into the campong day and night, and took the small fishing boats within half a mile of the shore. On the appearance of Bem Bowan, a stop was put to this hostility and the Kylie prows were sent off. Bem Bowan then came on shore and forced the Rajah to levy a general contribution, which was done. I saw him twice and made him a few trifling presents, but declined an invitation to visit him on board his prow. He made minute enquiries about me, and finding I had no property did not trouble me. My property however would not have saved my life, had he not understood letters had already been sent to Makassar apprizing the Governor of my situation. The whole of these prows, likewise those of Sindana which destroyed the campong, wore Dutch colors; they however had others which were displayed occasionally as a decoy.

Amongst the most desperate and successful pirates of the present day, RAGA, is most distinguished. He is dreaded by people of all denominations, and universally known as "the Prince of Pirates." For more than seventeen years this man has carried on a system of piracy to an extent never before known; his expeditions and enterprise would fill a large volume. They have invariably been marked with singular cunning and intelligence, barbarity and reckless inattention to the shedding of human blood. He has emissaries every where, and has intelligence of the best description. It is truly wonderful how this pirate and his associates beguile his European neighbours, from whom he easily manages to procure his yearly supplies of arms and ammunition; principally indeed through the intervention of his brother Aga Bota of Pergottan, his worthy associate and coadjutor. It was about the year 1813 Raga commenced operations on a large scale. In that year he cut off three English vessels, killing the captains with his own hand (exploits which, with many others of a similar kind I am loves to dwell upon.) So extensive were his depredations about that period, that a proclamation was issued from Batavia signed by the Lieut. Governor declaring the east coast of Borneo from Banjermassin to Browe included, under strict blockade and prohibiting any intercourse between the interjacent native states and Europeans ports. Two British sloops of war scoured the coast; one of which, I believe the *Elk*, Captain Reynolds, was attacked during the dark by Raga's own prow, who unfortunately was not on board at the time. This particular prow, which Raga personally commanded and the loss of which he frequently laments, carried eight guns and was full of his best men. He had himself landed at Pergottan a few days previously and sent off the prow with a favorite panglima (or commander) to pick up any small things which might be seen off point Salatan. A European vessel was faintly descryed about three o'clock one foggy morning; the rain fell in torrents; the time, the weather, were favorable circumstances for a surprize, and the panglima, determined to distinguish himself in the absence of rajah Raga, gave directions to close fire the guns, and board. He was the more confident of success as the European vessel was observed to keep away out of her proper course on approaching her. On getting within about hundred fathoms of the *pariah vessel* as they supposed her to be, they fired their broadside (4 guns) gave a loud shout and with their long oars pulled towards their prey. The sound of a drum beating to quarters no sooner struck the ear of the astonished panglima, than he endeavoured to get away, but it was too late; the ports were opened and a broadside, accompanied with three British cheers, gave sure indications of their fate. The panglima, hailed the English captain and would fain persuade him "*it was a mistake*;" it was indeed a mistake, and one not to be rectified by the panglima's Malayan explanation. The prow was sunk by repeated broadsides, and the commanding officer refused to pick up any of the people, who, with the exception of five, were drowned. These after floating four days on some spars, were picked up by

a Pergottan prow, and told the story to Raga, who swore, anew, destruction to every European he should henceforward take. The writer of this conversed with one of the officers of the sloop of war; it appears that the prow was early pointed out to the Lieutenant on deck, who seeing her ahead, and being fearful of running her down, did alter the course, a point each time. Two or three of the sloop's company were wounded. It would be well if all other vessels followed the example set by the captain of this sloop in attempting to destroy the whole, instead of taking prisoners who, in all probability will make an *amok* on board, or if set at liberty, will certainly return to their former course of life.

From the extremity of *Salatan Point* to the southern entrance of the *Pergottan* river, will be found about 120 miles; for the first fifty of which, the shore has a remarkable appearance, being in some parts bold, when huge craggy mountains rise almost perpendicularly above the sea; at others, the environs of the land are thickly studded with small rocky islands, which in some places project many leagues in the water. The native prows seldom venture within ten miles of the shore, but an European vessel should keep about five miles further off, when she will have from nine to eleven fathoms water. On approaching Pulo Laut, the islands are more numerous, and larger; few of them are marked in any chart which I have hitherto seen; some of the largest are situated thirty miles from the land, and are the haunts of the most desperate pirates, who swarm like locusts about the principal points and inlets. Their prows are small, and might be deemed contemptible, but from their number and swiftness of pulling: formerly most of these islands were independent of *Pergottan*, and "did business" on their own account, taking AGI BOTA's prows as well as others; but since the establishment of Singapore, the trade increased so rapidly, that RAGA thought it worthy of his notice to pay more than usual attention to the subject. He accordingly fixed his head quarters at *Pergottan*, and not finding the entire subjugation, (for nothing less would content him) so easy a matter, as he anticipated, he went to work upon another plan, which promised the success that attended it. RAJAH AGI BOTA wrote to the Resident of *Banjermassin*, lamenting in pathetic terms, the sad state of affairs, and the necessity of the adoption of some decisive measures, to put down piracy amongst these islands, which destroyed the native trade. To shew his abhorrence of such acts of atrocity, and testify his devoted attachment to the Netherland's Government, and to the Resident of *Banjermassin*, in particular, he mentioned that he had prevailed on his brother RAGA to sail against them with several large prows, bearing the Dutch flag. This letter, (which was a very long one and is yet talked of along the coast as a master-piece of policy) highly pleased the Resident of *Banjermassin*, who sent an officer in a gun-boat to confer with the Rajah. This visit was somewhat unexpected on the part of AGI BOTA and RAGA, perplexing them not a little, as, at that very moment, there were three prows, laying in the river, captured on their passage from Java to Sambas. They however got intelligence overland from an Arab friend, and had sufficient time to make their preparations. The Dutch officer was received with much respect, and matters went on swimmingly. The Resident of *Banjermassin* highly approved of AGI BOTA's measures in sending out RAGA, offering every assistance from the westward. This however, was declared unnecessary, as under Dutch colours, the two worthy brothers felt themselves sufficiently strong to put down those pirates, *whose enormities upon their European friends, affected them much more than their own losses.* They therefore modestly contented themselves with a request to be supplied with some arms and ammunition; this was of course granted them. When RAGA found that Europeans were not to interfere in the business, (a circumstance which would at once *ruin his plan,*) he put to sea, and did more mischief the three following months, than the island pirates had done during the same number of years. The chiefs of the islands, finding how matters stood, came to terms with RAGA, who has since acted in concert with them, and he and AGI BOTA are at this moment, the principal managers of all their affairs of the lawless kind. The most absurd representations were now made to *Banjermassin*, that piracy was suppressed as far as it could be effected, and as an earnest of the good intentions of the islanders, they would in future hoist the Dutch colours, which they do, when it suits their purpose.

AGI BOTA thus ingratiated himself into high favour, and has since been left entirely to his own measures; the consequence is *Pergottan* and its neighbourhood are swarming with pirates, and the bazars are stocked with European articles plundered from small vessels, which

have been decoyed amongst the islands, or captured at sea by the large prows of RAGA. At this moment, whilst AGI BOTA is feeding the government of *Banjermassin* with the most fulsome adulations, he has Europeans, both men and women, up the country doing the work of slaves, leading a life of unequalled misery! the writer of this happens to know something of the situation of Europeans in such hands, having himself been twice wrecked, on *Sumatra and Madagascar*; both times he was bought and sold as a slave, besides being in the centre of *Borneo*, upwards of twelve months in a like condition. But more of this anon.

Approaching within twenty miles of *Pergottan*, the mainland has a most dreary and desolate appearance; the higher mountains are far inland; the coast broken, and studded with rocks. The soil about this part is strongly impregnated with mineral ore; neither animal tree, nor plant live on a surface of at least a thousand square miles. The natives entertain a superstitious dread of this portion of the country, conceiving it to be the peculiar abode of evil spirits. In no other part of the world have I observed lightning have so tremendous an effect, that of a forked description, playing upon the ground, for the space of several minutes in infinite mazes or zigzags. We were off this place three days, viz; November 21st, 22nd, and 23rd, 1827; each night it was the same; and from all I could learn, the effect is much the same all the year round, but particularly so at the change of the monsoon. Of course there are no inhabitants near the place on which is scarcely to be seen a blade of grass. The iron here is of very superior quality, as every person who has visited *Banjermassin* must have remarked.

Small vessels running northward and eastward should never attempt to sail close along the land particularly during the night. Native prows do so, but they are frequently lost. Of the prows that left *Singapore* in November 1827, there were nine lost, four of which I saw on the rocks, and abandoned. A European vessel should not approach nearer than five or six leagues, when she will have deep water, and be outside most of the smaller islands; she must, however, sail between others, should she venture closer in shore, where the navigation is so critical, and the hidden dangers so many, that in all probability she will either touch, or get becalmed. Hundreds of small pirate prows are continually looking out for such occurrences. It is melancholy to think on the number of small craft which have thus been cut off, within the last ten or dozen years; when once aground, there is no extrication, and a calm is almost as fatal. The natives compare these small islands to so many spider-webs, and it is evident few flies can escape when once entangled in them.

The main entrance to *Pergottan* is by the western river, which is wide, and has the advantage of being without any bar, (or a very trifling one) so common to most rivers in this Archipelago. At the mouth it is not less than five miles wide; the depth of water at the full and change of the moon, from fifteen to twenty fathoms, and the holding ground excellent, the soil being very similar to that off *Batavia*, and *Singapore*. On getting within the river, about three miles, a vessel appears land-locked on three sides, but by keeping the western bank on board, an opening will soon be discerned; proceeding about ten miles further, she will find herself immediately under a very remarkable hill, perhaps 1200 feet high, called by the Bugis *Pulo Pâlâna*, from its near resemblance to a saddle; here all the prows anchor opposite the point of a small promontory, on which the rajah has an establishment; there is likewise a bazar at some little distance. Whilst I remained here, there were 71 prows of considerable sizes, 39 of which were professed pirates. The largest of these belonged to RAGA, who received by the fleet of prows in which I came, his usual supplies from Singapore, of arms, ammunition, &c. for the ensuing year. From the base of *Pulo Pâlâna*, the surrounding country has the appearance of a vast amphitheatre, enclosing an extensive lake of water, as no outlet can be distinguished.

The river running past the point expands itself. Here nestle the principal pirates, and RAGA holds his head quarters; his grand depôt is a few miles further up. Rajah AGI BOTA himself generally resides some distance up a smaller river which runs eastward of the point; near his habitation stands the principal bazar which would be a great curiosity for a European to visit, if he could only manage to return, which very few have. The rajah gave me a pressing invitation to spend a couple of days at his country house, but all the Bugis nacodahs strongly dissuaded me from such an attempt, the duragon of the Sultan's prow

particularly. I soon discovered the cause of their apprehension; they were jealous of AGI BOTA, well knowing he would plunder me, and considered every article taken by him was so much lost to the Sultan of *Coti*, who naturally would expect his people to reserve me for his own particular plucking. When the fact was known of a European having arrived in the *Pergottan* river, this *amiable prince* and *friend* of *Europeans*, impatient to seize his prey, came immediately to the point, from his country-house, and sending for the nacodah of the prow, ordered him to land me and all my goods instantly. I was to be sent up the country as a matter of course, and my baggage &c. was to be divided, the rajah contenting himself with merely one half of the whole. An invitation now came for me to go on shore and amuse myself with shooting, and look at some rare birds of beautiful plumage which the rajah would give me if I would accept of them; but knowing what were his intentions, and being well aware I should be supported by all the Bugis prows from *Coti*, I feigned sickness and requested that the birds be sent on board. Upon this, AGI BOTA who could no longer restrain himself, sent off two boats of armed men, who robbed me of many articles, and would certainly have forced me on shore, or murdered me in the prow, had not a signal been made to the Bugis: nacodahs, who immediately came, with their people, and with spears and krises drove the rajah's people overboard. The nacodahs, nine in number, now went on shore, when a scene of contention took place, shewing clearly the character of this chief. The Bugis from *Coti* explained that with regard to me, it was necessary to be particularly circumspect, as I was not only well known at *Singapore*, but the authorities in that settlement were aware of my being on board the Sultan's prow, and they themselves were responsible for my safety; this was indeed the fact, as previous to my leaving the latter place, I had taken the precaution to obtain a letter from the Sultan of *Singapore* to the Sultan of *Coti*. besides which several Bugis nacodahs were assembled before Messrs PRESCRAVE and BONHAM, who were kind enough to give particular directions regarding their care of me. To this circumstance alone, I owe my life on several occasions, as in the event of any thing happening me, every nacodah was apprehensive of his prow being seized on his return to *Singapore*; I was therefore more peculiarly cared for, by this class of men, and they are powerful.

The rajah answered the nacodahs by saying I might be disposed of as many others had been, and no further notice taken of the circumstance; he himself would write to *Singapore*, likewise to the Resident of *Banjermassin*, that I had been taken by an alligator or bitten by a snake whilst out shooting, and as for what property I might have in the prow he would divide it with the Sultan of *Coti*. The Bugis, however, refused to listen to any terms, knowing the Sultan of *Coti* would call them to account for the property, and the authorities of *Singapore* for my life. Fortunately for me, another rajah was then on a visit to *Pergottan*, who was said to be on very indifferent terms with AGI BOTA and the Bugis were apprehensive of his giving intelligence. This noisy conference ended in the rajah declaring the prows should not leave the river until some arrangements were made. Our prow with others, therefore dropped about four miles down the river, to the eastward of which, is a spring of fresh water, where we took in a supply. Here we remained six days, every argument being made in vain to entice me on shore; at length, the Bugis nacodahs came to the determination to sail *without passes*, which brought the rajah to terms. The prows returned to the point, and I was given to understand I might go on shore in safety. I did so, and was introduced to the rajah, whom I found under a shed, with about 150 of his people; they were busy gambling, and had the appearance of what they really are, a ferocious horde of banditti. AGI BOTA is a good-looking man, about forty years of age, of no education whatsoever; he divides his time between gaming, opium-smoking, and cock-fighting, that is, in the intervals of his more serious and profitable employment of piracy and rapine. He asked me if the Government at *Singapore* were aware of my intention of touching at *Pergottan*; I answered, yes, and that I had written letters to *Banjermassin* to the same effect. He appeared satisfied, and asked me to produce what money I had about me; on seeing only ten rupees, he remarked it was not worth while to win so small a sum, but that if I would fight cocks with him, he would lend me what I wanted, and added, it was beneath his dignity to fight under fifty reals a battle. On my saying it was contrary to an Englishman's religion to bet wages, he dismissed me; immediately after which, the two rajahs produced their cocks and commenced fighting for one rupee the battle. I was now obliged to give the old bandarre five

rupees to take some care of me, as whilst walking about, the people not only thrust their hands into my pockets, but pulled the buttons from my clothes. Whilst sauntering behind the rajah's campong, I caught sight of a European woman, who on perceiving herself observed, immediately ran into one of the houses; no doubt dreading the consequences of being recognized. There are now in the house of AGI BOTA two European women; up the country there are others, besides several men. The Bugis inimical to the rajah made no secret of the fact: I had heard of it on board the prow, and some persons in the bazar confirmed the information. On my arrival, strict orders had been given to the inhabitants to put all European articles out of sight. One of my servants going into the bazar, brought me such accounts, as induced me to visit it. In one house were the following articles: 4 bibles, one in the English, one in the Dutch, and two in the Portuguese languages; many articles of wearing apparel, such as jackets and trowsers with the buttons altered to suit the natives; pieces of shirts tagged to other parts of dress; several broken instruments, such as quadrants, spy-glasses, binnacles, (two) with pieces of ship's sails, bolts and hoops; and a considerable variety of gunner's and carpenter's stores. In another shop were two pelisses, one of faded lilac colour, the other grey; these were of modern cut, and fashionably made. On enquiring how they became possessed of these articles, I was told by some they were wrecks of European vessels, on which no people were found, whilst others made no scruple of averring they were formerly the property of Europeans who had died in the country. All the goods in the bazar belonged to the Rajah, and were sold on his account; large quantities were said to be in his house up the river, but on all hands it was admitted that RAGA and his followers had by far the largest part of what was taken. A mandoor or head of one of the campongs shewed me some women's stockings, several of which were marked with the letters S. W.; two flannel petticoats; a miniature portrait-frame; (the picture was in the Rajah's house,) with many articles of dress of both sexes. In consequence of the strict orders given on the subject, I could see no more; indeed there were both difficulty and danger attending these enquiries. Having no money about me, (the five rupees which remained to me being given to look at these things) I could purchase nothing; had it been otherwise, I dare not be seen taking them away. I particularly wanted to obtain the miniature picture, and offered the mandoor, fifty rupees if he could procure it; he laughed at me, and pointing one hand significantly to his kris, drew the other across his throat, and mine, giving me to understand such would be the result to us both, on such an application to the Rajah.

It is the universal custom of all the pirates on this coast to sell the people for slaves immediately they arrive, the Rajah taking for himself a few of the most useful, and receiving a per-centage upon the purchase-money of the remainder, with a moiety of the vessel and every article on board. European vessels are taken up the river, where they are immediately broken up. The situation of European prisoners is indeed dreadful in a climate like this, where even the labour of natives is intolerable; they are compelled to perform all the drudgery, and allowed a bare sufficiency of rice and salt to eat. As I am confident the European woman saw me, she would naturally expect me to make the fact known, and procure her release, with that of her companions in misery. God knows how willingly I would do so at any sacrifice, well knowing by experience, what it is to live thus on "hope deferred," where nothing supports the mind, but the anxious expectation of some such event as occurred to this poor creature, whose friends and relations have doubtlessly long since concluded she was dead. If she yet survives, she can never believe, I have made her case known to a civilised government, as she will think it impossible for them to hear of it, and not attempt her release. I am, however, strongly impressed with an opinion that to recover any of the Europeans will be attended with extreme difficulty, as the Rajah will strenuously deny having them in the country. He will immediately cause them to be put to death, and carefully destroy every vestige of European property in the place. The slightest hint of suspicion given him by any one would be sufficient to occasion this conclusion of his villany, and the character I have given previously of the natives, will, (if it be a correct one) convince any person of the inutility of making enquiries in the country. I shall however hereafter venture to give an humble opinion how this desirable object may be best attempted.

There are likewise up the country of *Pergottan* a great number of Chinese, and a few country-born Portuguese. The former people they are very anxious to capture not only because

they are useful in several occupations to which the natives are unequal, but they have a malicious pleasure in tormenting them, in return for the many acts of roguery and trickery practised upon the prahus by the Chinese shop-keepers and others.

The whole population of the country of *Pergattan* according to the highest calculation is 11,000, including women. The Rajah's bandarre told me 7,800; the truth may be between; 9,000 will probably be the amount. They are scattered over a large extent of country. AGI BOTA, with all his efforts, could not bring forward more than 800 armed men, and these of the most wretched, cowardly description. There are not more than eight or ten prows belonging to inhabitants of the place, if we except those of the pirate description, who are only there occasionally.

The country is miserably poor, producing nothing but rattans; yet does this paltry chief, within 150 miles of an European settlement, commit these enormities, and merely from the circumstance of his favourable situation, gives refuge and protection to all pirates far and near. And this he effects through means of artifice and dissimulation, assisted by the Arabs and others who live amongst Europeans. The vessels of Arabs are always respected, and in return they give the earliest information and advice of European proceedings. It is true, they manage to keep out of sight, but it is likewise most certain they are at the bottom of most enormities committed by pirate prows in these seas. Two gun-boats, two hundred sepoys, with four six-pounders, I am convinced would, without trouble or loss, take possession of this sink of iniquity, even if the rajah were disposed for resistance, and his people would assist him, which they would not. When he talked of taking away my property by force, the Bugis nacodahs laughed at his threats, well knowing they could land their people from the prows, and drive him into jungle. One of them told him so, reminding him, it would not be the first time they had done such a thing. The place could, no doubt, be taken without an attempt to defend it, and two long guns placed at the point, opposite Saddle mountain, would effectually command both rivers.

It appears strange that a place so near *Banjermasin*, should not have been oftener visited by Europeans; with the exception of two or three Dutch gun-boats, I believe few vessels have ever been up the river, that returned again. The distance overland cannot be more than 120 miles; the English Resident, Mr. HARE walked it in ten days, accompanied by SAIB ABDULLAH, the present bandarre of *Coti*. It was an hazardous undertaking and Mr. HARE was extremely fortunate in getting away, notwithstanding his letter from the Sultan of *Banjermassin*, and his unbounded liberality to the rajah, and his followers. On this occasion, previous information was sent by an Arab of his intended journey, but the rajah would not believe the Resident would come that way; he therefore arrived unexpectedly, and at a time, when there were *four European women* in AGI BOTA'S country-house. SAIB ABDULLAH knew this, and the rajah made him swear by the koran, never to divulge the secret. I have frequently heard the bandarre tell the Sultan of *Coti* that Mr. HARE would certainly have been murdered, had it not been well known, he was on the most intimate terms with the Sultan of *Banjermassin*, who would certainly revenge his death, and whose sagacity it was useless to attempt deceiving.

To give some idea of AGI BOTA'S management of Europeans, I will relate the adventure of one which occurred in 1826; and which I know to be a fact. This person had arrived in a prow from *Banjermassin*, from which place he had a *Government pass*; without this document AGI BOTA would immediately have disposed of him, but having it, there was a necessity to put him out of the way in a manner which would not excite suspicion in the mind of the Resident, that foul play had been practised at *Pergattan*, in the event of enquiry being made. After remaining some days with the rajah (during which period he was pretty well fleeced,) the person desired assistance to proceed to *Bataliching*, another native state about 35 miles farther eastward. After purchasing a small prow, AGI BOTA promised to provide him with good people; when every thing was in readiness to embark, the Rajah requested a receipt might be given, of his wish to leave the country, and that he had taken his property with him; this document, it was stated, was necessary to send to *Banjermassin* to shew AGI BOTA had not been wanting in proper care. On examining this paper it was found *dated at Bataliching*, the mistake being pointed out, the rajah refused to alter it, and when the European persisted in his refusal to attach the signature until his arrival at *Bataliching*; the

prow and people were taken, and himself confined, and there is not the smallest doubt he would have been murdered, or sent up the country in a few days, had not his servant (a native of *Batalicching,*) recommended him to send off a small sampan privately to AGI JAVA the Rajah of *Batalicching,* in order to inform him of his situation and beg immediate assistance. Two men were found who, for fifteen rupees in hand, and a promise of as many more, undertook to carry a letter and return with an answer; they started during a dark night, and in three days, a very large fast pulling boat, well manned and armed arrived, commanded by a chief, who brought a letter from AGI JAVA, stating, if the European with all his property were not immediately forwarded in that boat, he would himself come and demand him. This letter mentioned that immediate intimation should be given to the Resident of *Banjermassin* of AGI BOTA'S conduct, and his own proceedings in the affair. This communication had the desired effect; he was safely conveyed to *Batalicching,* where every attention was paid to his wants. This *ruse de guerre* has been very frequently played with success; its object is evident: should letters be received from a European settlement desiring to be informed what has become of the traveller, this receipt is returned, which states that while at *Pergottan,* every kindness and attention had been paid him by the Rajah; at his own request he had left the country, and had actually arrived in another part, *whence the paper is dated,* and where, of course, the rajah of *Pergottan* has no authority. It should be stated in justice to AGI JAVA of *Batalicching,* that he is an excellent man, and has frequently interfered to preserve Europeans; he has likewise the character of being very honourable in his dealings, but will allow no one to trade in his country, but himself. The Sultan of *Coti* acknowledged the sending of this letter to be a good expedient and the only one which could have saved the person in question. His brother PANGERAN PRABO said, if others had thought of it, at least twenty-seven Europeans, to his own knowledge, might have been now living. Should a man have no pass, or the fact be discovered that his coming to the country is unknown to the English or Dutch Governments, he is taken off; *sans ceremonie.*

It was at *Pergottan* where the plan was formed to capture at *Coti,* the vessel commanded by captain GRAVESSOME; this is every where spoken of as one of the greatest exploits of RAGA, whose share of the plunder was so great, that he was enabled to build several large prows, and to use the language of the Sultan of *Coti* "*transact business on a larger scale than ever.*" Captain GRAVESSOME had been trading at *Sambas, Slackoo,* and *Pontianak*; it cannot, after this lapse of time, be correctly ascertained whither he afterwards intended to proceed; but the vessel was, one morning, seen laying off *Pulo Laut,* by the people inhabiting the northern point of that island, who from the highest points of land are continually on the look-out. RAGA, who was then at *Pergottan,* upon being informed of the circumstance, immediately came down the river with some prows; but on seeing a vessel well-prepared for defence, resolved to proceed by stratagem; he therefore went on board and prevailed upon GRAVESSOME to take his vessel up the river. This he did, anchoring her about three miles south of the point. The captain went on shore and was received by the rajah in the most friendly manner. Here the vessel was to have been cut off, but the danger of detection was greater than usual, as, at the time, lay in the river several *Pontianak* prows of which they where apprehensive, as AGI BOTA and the Sultan of *Pontianak* were not upon the best terms with each other, the latter having lately lost some prows, and suspecting RAGA, had sent these vessels for an explanation; therefore the news of this fresh aggression would certainly be conveyed to *Banjermassin:* besides, although it was an easy matter to murder the captain on shore, to take the vessel was not so, she being kept ready for action, at a moment's notice, with boarding nettings run up, the crew armed, and all natives prohibited going on board. So determined, however, was RAGA on taking this vessel, knowing her value, that his brother, more apprehensive of danger, knowing he had every thing to lose, positively refused his assent. They therefore resolved to perpetrate the deed elsewhere, and *Coti* was fixed upon, for if they could once get the vessel up that long river failure was impossible.

To *Coti,* captain GRAVESSOME was strongly advised to proceed, as opium was there wanted, and gold-dust, bees-wax, and birds-nests to be procured in abundance. To oblige the captain, *his good friend* AGI BOTA despatched a small prow with a letter to the Sultan requesting the produce might be collected against the arrival. This letter, which is now in the hands of Saib Abdulla, however, contains very different information; it is filled with stipulations for a proper division of the spoil. The vessel was taken up the *Coti* river, cut off, and the crew

with the exception of four or five, (whom I daily saw at *Coti*) murdered. Captain GRAVESSOME was stabbed in his cabin by RAGA, who observing a curious Java kris suspended from the ceiling, requested permission to take it down and look at it; whilst standing opposite to his victim, pretending to admire the blade, he plunged it into his body. This kris is now in the house of PANGERAN SEREIPA. RAGA, after much wrangling with the Sultan about a division of the spoil, returned to *Pergottan*, laden with treasure and opium. The people of *Coti* acknowledge this to be the most valuable prize ever made on the coast.

In the late war up the bay of *Boni* between the Dutch and Bugis, the latter were constantly supplied with all kind of warlike stores from *Pergottan*; during the three preceding years the salt prows, which came from the opposite coast, returned laden with gunpowder and other munitions of war, which had been principally purchased at *Singapore* and *Penang*, and from the American vessels off the latter island. These American captains understood their business well. Whilst laying off, they were met by RAGA and other pirate prows who, having taken passes from *Pergottan* came, well knowing they should find one or more American vessels on this station. The bargain being concluded, (generally through the agency of Chinese,) the vessels stood out under pretence of throwing overboard ballast, and running into some bight, they were joined by the prows, and the exchange took place; the American receiving dollars or gold-dust. This method of barter must have been very profitable to Jonathan who disposed of his rubbish at high prices. And here perhaps our transatlantic brethren hav edone some good; as the gunpowder they sell will not explode, the purchasers are obliged to mix it with other of a superior quality; it is totally useless in fire-arms for priming, as it will not ignite from the sparks of a flint; therefore the natives invariably prime with fine powder; as for the muskets, I have seen numbers of them in various parts, and I would much rather allow a man to fire one at me, than fire it off myself. The *Boni* people in their late war, got much assistance from *Kylie*, *Coti*, and *Passier*; but *Pergottan* was the grand depôt, being much nearer *Singapore* and *Penang*; besides it is only five days sail for a prow to the Bugis campong up the bay of *Boni*. During the contention there, AGI BOTA and RAGA were in continual dread and alarm, lest the Resident of *Banjermassin* should send a gun-boat up the river, when strange doings would have been discovered; but the Arab and Bugis living amongst the Europeans, and who well knew what was going forward, were on the other side of the question.

During most part of the S. W. monsoon, all the *Kylie* and other pirate prows are engaged in fishing for trepang, and procuring tortoiseshell; when the monsoon is changing and the weather variable, which is usually the case for a month or six weeks, before the N. E. winds set strongly in, RAGA sails from *Kylie* with seldom less than from 30 to 40 large prows; with them he scours the straits, as far as *Lingin*, taking and plundering every vessel he meets with excepting Arabs and such Bugis as are on good terms with him. All the *Pontianak* and *Sambas* prows are fair game, as well as those sailing from *Banjermassin*, without they belong to his confederates; the small craft sailing from *Java* are his favourite prey; about *Billiton* straits and the northern part of *Banca* he invariably finds rich pickings, likewise off the eastern coast of *Lingin*, beyond which he seldom adventures *in his piratical capacity*. As he picks up his prizes, if prows, he sends them into *Pergottan*; if of a European cut, he generally *sinks* them after taking out the cargoes, and murders the people; he contrives to arrive himself at *Pergottan* before the N. E. winds are strong. Nothing now remains but to dispose of his plunder, and get a few of his best prows ready for a *mercantile trip to Singapore or Penang*; he therefore loads them, with tortoiseshell, or trepang, and fills up with rattans; his worthy brother AGI BOTA of course provides passes and they now have nothing to do but sell their cargoes, and return with supplies of *the means of mischief for the ensuing year*.

As at *Pergottan* the rajah and principal persons are Bugis, I will conclude this paper with a faithful character of those people; and should any European think it an unjust one, all I can say is "into a Bugis country I will not go in that man's company." I throw out these hints for the consideration of those gentlemen who, I have little doubt, will be sent upon this interesting mission: by their report, the correctness of these remarks shall be judged, and upon that report will I stake my own character for veracity, which to me is dear.

It is utterly impossible for Europeans who have seen the Bugis and other such people in places like *Singapore* or *Batavia*, to form any conception of their true character; there they are under immediate controul, and every part of their behaviour is a tissue of falsehood and deception; they constantly carry about with them a smooth tongue, a fawning cringing demeanour, a complying disposition, which always asserts and never contradicts, a countenance which appears to anticipate the very wish of the European, and which generally so imposes upon his understanding that he at once concludes them to be the best and gentlest of human beings; but let the European meet them in any of their own campongs and a very different character they will appear. My own opinion of the proper method of treating with these people is as follows: the remarks are general, but will stand good in all situations.

In the first place never trust them unless their own particular interests are evidently and immediately concerned, and even then trust them with caution; for like a surly cur, they invariably endeavour to hurt the hand that feeds them; never allow them to take the smallest liberty; they are the most encroaching people living. If a Bugis can find a hole large enough to introduce his finger, his body will shortly follow. Mildness and good-nature are qualities absolutely necessary to deal with them; whatever a Bugis chief may feel, he is never heard to express any resentment, but will coincide in all you say. In conversation he will sound the opinions of his antagonist at a distance; however much these may be against himself he will express no disapprobation, which might create suspicion, and put the other on his guard; the Bugis forms his own conclusions, silently acting upon them. These are amongst the very first lessons the Bugis youth receive, and as they grow older they generally better the instruction. In dealing with them, firmness of mind should rather be implied than expressed: they possess wonderful acuteness in diving into the character of men, and soon find out how far they can safely tamper with them. But there is no difficulty in managing these people if you commence properly. Never appear to doubt of the propriety of measures, it may be necessary to adopt, or they will take immediate advantage of it, and involve their antagonist in a labyrinth of argument, which is precisely the point at which they aim. When a Bugis is allowed to dispute, he never knows when to stop, and no satisfactory conclusion can possibly be made; after much procrastination, the conference breaks off, with mutual discontent; every word spoken by the European is positive gain to the Bugis, whose only wish is to collect information and should the European believe a single word that the Bugis has told, so much the worse for himself. In a word, give him to understand in temperate language, that every difficulty has been foreseen and provided for; that it is utterly useless for him to attempt to deceive you, as you are already in possession of the requisite information from *Arabs* in the European interest although they do not appear in the business; let them at once perceive the strong line is drawn, "thus far may you go but no farther." They will then see the inutility of attempting deceptive tricks, and matters will go on smoothly. Never, on any consideration, give a Bugis to understand that you fear him or are within his power, otherwise you are certainly lost; let the fact be impressed upon the mind of every sensible man, that the passion of *Fear*, is the only feeling on which these people act, and to this they must be brought before dependence can be placed or safety ensured; bring them at once to the point you desire, and keep them fast, not permitting them to deviate to the right or left in a single instance; one false step requires many to redeem it, and it will be found difficult to bring them back to the main object. Whenever matters proceed to extremity, give battle to preserve the first step of ground, and be always prepared for it; by these means the line of demarcation will be drawn and strictly preserved. It will readily be imagined that to get the Europeans out of such hands requires some little dexterity, but, beyond all doubt, it is to be done by the method I have pointed out, and probably by no other; negociation would be the certain signal of immediate destruction, not only to all Europeans, but to those whose views might be conceived any way favorable towards them: every vestige of European property would be collected and destroyed, when it would be found impossible to discover a clue, whereby enquiry might be guided. It is by no means unlikely but ere the change of N. E. monsoon the Admiral will be in the Straits; upon a proper representation to the Governor, there can, I think, be little doubt, he will spare a small sloop of war, for the purpose of cruizing off *Pulo Laut*, and dispersing the pirate vessels which swarm there; after which to sail up the *Pergottan* river, (there is plenty of water,) and destroy RAGA'S flotilla or such part of it as may be there found, together with his grand depot and those of his chiefs; these should be fired and totally consumed, as some little atonement for the *twenty seven captains* of *European vessels*,

who, by his own account, have fallen by his hand, and for the seas of blood, besides, which has been wantonly shed by these ruffians. There can be little doubt of the cordial assistance of the British Admiral, when his Excellency is made fully acquainted with the extent of their enormities. We live far from England; whether it be a long residence in this climate, renders Europeans indifferent and indeed almost insensible to the calls of humanity, which some say it does, or whether the most callous, cold-hearted, stoical misanthropy has alone found its way to this quarter of our Indian possessions, I cannot say, but atrocities which in England would rouse that generous people almost to madness, here create but little surprize, sympathy, or concern; the excessive love of accumulating wealth has destroyed all those feelings which in our youth we were taught to consider as most valuable and precious.

SECOND PART.

It has latterly become a question with many persons who give themselves the trouble of thinking upon subjects connected with the native population of these Islands, whether, the introduction of gunpowder has tended in any manner to civilize the people: whether the fire-arms and ammunition they purchase from Europeans, have rendered their wars with each other less bloody; and lastly whether such destructive engines and munitions of war have given to the natives any superiority over Europeans, which previously by land and sea they did not possess; particularly in their piratical attempts on European vessels.

The late war on Java gave great opportunities to the various Dutch commanders to observe on the Javanese method of warfare, which in its nature is very similar to that of the Bugis, Macassarese and other people of this Archipelago. The English, during their seven years possession of Java and its dependencies, had likewise many opportunities of marking the difference of fighting with the Javanese, Macassarese, Bugis, Amboynese, and people of Sambas, and Pontianak; when they had fire-arms, and when they merely used their own offensive and defensive weapons. Writers are by means agreed on the subject, which has frequently been matter of discussion generally, by the three following classes of men, viz. the philosopher, the military man, and the merchant. The opinions of the two former, must be valuable, as the experience, patience and perseverance of the former in ascertaining the true character of the natives, joined to the practical and active knowledge of the soldier will, I presume, give us every information and elucidation we can reasonably desire: respecting the merchant, (without he may have been previously a captain of a ship,) his knowledge on the subject must of necessity be much circumscribed, *his* pursuits and occupations are not of a nature to put him in possession of the best information on such points. The merchant remains within his establishment, venting bitter reproaches against the Government, for not allowing the free importation of muskets and gunpowder; we might from this be led to suppose, that his opinion was favorable to such importation on the ground that their use superseded the necessity of employing those mortal weapons, the poisoned spear and kris; thereby softening the horrors of native warfare, and pouring a balm indirectly but efficiently into the wounds of suffering humanity. Would it were so, for the honour of that humanity of which the merchants make a part: but we observe also, these implements of destruction are wanted by him, for the mere purpose of selling them again at a large profit. I have no doubt some of these gentlemen could, as they have done before at times, give good and philanthropic reasons, why the pirates ought to have muskets, powder and shot, without let or controul. The philosopher looks at these important alterations in native states, with a wary eye and a fond hope, that amongst the unavoidable and peculiar miseries to which these people are subject, every change may bring with it some amelioration; some alleviation to those sufferings, nature appears to have especially in store for them, in consequence of the universal crime, into which they have been plunged by the cupidity and avarice of those Europeans who mercilessly reigned over them in by-gone days, and whose short-sighted policy has made the murdering of them at the present period scarcely a crime; when in their own fastnesses and jungles, we are obliged to look on them like snakes or tigers, and are too often absolutely obliged to attack and destroy them, literally to preserve our own lives.

There is an old Bugis proverb, known to almost every child of six years of age: it has indeed resolved itself into a precept of the *Koran*. I have myself frequently heard the following question put to the boys during the *Puasa* month: "Should you meet in the jungle at the same moment a tiger, a black snake, and a European, which would you kill first?" An immediate shout of execration on the European name from the children, testifies that the selection is readily made; but, notwithstanding the mortal enmity they at present bear us, a

benevolent good man would fain hope the mild and gentle character of Europeans at such settlements as Singapore, would in time produce a favourable change in their character, and that in the mean time, the introduction of fire-arms and ammunition might tend to smooth the way, for such reconciliation, however distant the period, by rendering battles more decisive and less destructive; which we know has been the case in European warfare since the invention of gunpowder.

Let us now come to the question, what ships or vessels do supply the inhabitants of this Archipelago with warlike stores? And here we must do the Dutch government the justice to state that no instance has hitherto occurred of a Netherlands ship bringing out from Europe either muskets or gunpowder, except on account of the government. Their laws and regulations on this subject, are so very strict that to evade them is next to an impossibility. It is a fact and should be mentioned, that the feelings of all Dutch Residents and officers commanding out-stations are in perfect unison on this grand point, with the standing orders from Holland, and the local regulations of Batavia; so much so, that any attempt to sell warlike stores to the natives would immediately be made known to Government, when summary punishment would speedily follow: confiscation of ship and cargo; inprisonment of captain and crew, with a fine of three times the amount of gunpowder, &c. supposed to be already sold.

It is a common practice for English, French, and American vessels, when trading in the native ports of the Dutch possessions, to hoist Dutch colours: on the west coast of Sumatra, some years ago, this practice was very common; at present it is occasionally attempted by French and Americans trading at Bali and the Spice islands, where they are necessitated to have recourse to this *ruse de guerre*, as the natives of those islands dare not venture on board any vessel if the Dutch flag is not flying. Regarding French ships, very few trade in these seas; two or three ships each year leave France for Cochin-China, partly laden with muskets and gunpowder. These they exchange for silver bars, tortoiseshell, &c. On their return they occasionally touch at New Guinea or Bali, for the purpose of exchanging what ammunition they may have left for young slaves, which are landed and sold at Bourbon on their return to Europe.

Vessels from the Isle of France can neither trade in warlike stores, or slaves without the greatest risk of detection; but those from the neighbouring island of Bourbon do both openly and with impunity, so far as the French authorities are concerned, who connive at and protect slave-traders, whose cargoes for the purchase of these miserable beings, are chiefly composed of gunpowder, muskets, swords, brandy, red cloth, and trinkets. It cannot be denied that the Bourbon vessels do much mischief amongst the people of the islands; as their system is one of kidnapping, and as they seldom or ever trade twice at the same place, they care not what enormities they commit upon the natives. These the latter, of course, retaliate upon the first European vessel that may touch at the same port; for it is not to be supposed such people can discriminate between European nations; all white men to them are the same.

The Americans are, however, the greatest carriers of these contraband articles. It is a well known fact, that with the exception of skins, furs, ginseng-root and a few articles of coarse cutlery, the Americans have nothing for the China market, except dollars. Almost all the vessels leaving the ports of the United States, for China, convey muskets, pistols, swords, and gunpowder, which they sell on their outward passage to the natives and other inhabitants of *Palawan* and *Megidano*; there are Americans living on both these islands who make the necessary arrangements, and who have several small native vessels, constantly sailing about the usual tracks of ships to China in the proper season, for the sole purpose of meeting American vessels and taking from them their cargoes of warlike stores, which are, in the first instance, deposited in stores, built for the purpose on those two islands, whence they are carried westward to the following grand depôts, viz. *Sindal*, situated on the northern extremity of Borneo; The Sooloo islands of *Pâta* and *Bêka*; these are found about 5° north latitude and 120 east longitude, bearing as nearly as possible N. E. from point *Chelâka*, on the eastern coast of Borneo; and *Kylie* the grand emporium of the Bugis. *Sindal* is inhabited almost wholly by Arabs, and people of religious habit. The two islands have likewise on them many of these devotees, who are all traders, and have much influence. The next, in consequence, are the Camboja people, who are under the controul of a rajah of their own choosing; then the Bugis, who are in fact, more powerful, than all the others combined. As for *Kylie*, RAJA's sanctum sanctorum, the trading population, which is immense, is entirely Bugis; perhaps seven tenths of all ammunition landed in the first place at Palawan

and Megidano eventually find their way to *Kylie*, and supplies the whole coast of Celebes, likewise all those islands. Eastward of the island of *Bouton*, as far as *Slako*, the western promontory of New Guinea, these islands are very numerous. Upon no one have the Dutch an establishment, Amboyna and a few of the Spice islands, of course excepted; and even on these, the whole of the people, living on the coast, beyond the ken of the Dutch flag, are desperate pirates as well as all those inhabiting the other and smaller islands, who are proverbially pirates by profession. Even on the island of Bouton so near to Macassar—and which in size is equal to Banca—the Dutch have only two soldiers and a corporal. The latter is a personage of considerable importance, bearing the title of "His Excellency" at the rajah's court: this detachment is relieved annually.

With this information before us, we can in some degree account for the immense quantities of powder, and warlike stores of all descriptions found in the possession of all the people inhabiting those islands, situate to the northward and eastward of the straits of Singapore, and the rajahs and chiefs along the extensive coasts of Celebes, including the dense population dwelling on each shore of the Boni bay. (It should be observed that on the eastern coast of Borneo, as far as Coti, the rajahs and pirates do not usually derive their supplies from the quarters, I have mentioned; these rely upon the Chinese at Singapore and the Americans of Penang; and they have some good reasons for this preference.)

In the various native ports and rivers of *Kylie*, there are not less than 700 prows of various sizes, continually on the look-out for other vessels. In calm weather they fish for tortoise and trepang. The Sultan of Coti says, that *Kylie* can send out one thousand prows at 24 hours notice, but the rajah of Sindano told me, seven hundred were the utmost. In none of these prows, are there less than two barrels of powder, however small they may be; the generality will carry five barrels, and the larger ones always, ten to fifteen. From *Kylie* to *Mandhaar point*, there are five principal Rajahs, besides innumerable small ones. Each of these Rajahs of the first class, have from one hundred and fifty to two hundred and forty prows; every petty chief will have from seven to thirty; these, as I have personally observed, may be seen along the whole line of coast drawn upon the beach at high-water mark, ready for launching at a moment's notice. All these vessels have on board, at their disposal, the same quantity of gunpowder as those of *Kylie*. Along the whole line of coast are depôts of ammunition, most of which belong to *Kylie* rajahs. The prows from Boni bay and other parts of Celebes, including all those smaller eastern islands which I have noticed, have nothing to do but come here, and take away as much as they can pay for.

Some idea may be formed of the quantum of gunpowder, in the principal depôts of the western coast of Celebes, when I mention that in Mamoodgoo, where I was living ten weeks, which is nothing but a paltry fishing place, the principal rajah had buried 75 coyans. Poë Bello, the name of the Bugis with whom I resided had 35 coyans—all in American casks. Mamoodgoo, although reckoned a poor country, is very extensive and populous; the inhabitants being estimated at 35,000; every thirtieth man is a chief or petty Rajah; not one of these will be without fifteen or twenty barrels in his possession; each of them has one or more Palembang or Grissee manufactured gun, which they are continually firing.

Although these petty chiefs usually live within a few hundred yards of each other, yet when visiting, the party invited always receive *seven guns*, and the same number on leaving the house. When the great rajah goes a hunting, a signal is made when leaving the place, and a salute of 27 guns is fired by every chief in the country, and this is repeated on his return home. When the ceremonies of marriage or circumcision are performed in the family of a chief or rajah, guns are fired from sunrise to midnight at the rate of twelve shots per hour; all the others answer with *one* gun per hour. The birth of a son is announced by 25 guns and replied to by every chief in the country with 13. On the death of a petty rajah, as many guns are fired as he is years old, every day during the term of *one moon*. When the great rajah dies this daily ceremony is performed for *twelve moons*.

As these ceremonies, with many others, are practised along the entire coasts of Celebes and other islands to the eastward, some idea may be formed of the immense consumption of gunpowder in this part of the Archipelago alone. Indeed nothing astonished me more during my sojourn amongst these people, than the useless waste of this article. For twenty seven days, the period of the rajahs of BEMBOWAN and SINDANO remaining of Mamoodjoo with more than two hundred prows, the whole of them were day and night continually firing, merely in honour of their respective chiefs.

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SOME PARTICULARS RESPECTING THE MURDER OF CAPTAIN GRAVESSOME AND PART OF HIS CREW, AT COTI, ON THE ISLAND OF BORNEO.

Amongst the many European vessels which have been cut off or wrecked on this part of the coast of Borneo, within the last ten years, that commanded by Captain GRAVESSOME is somewhat remarkable, from the circumstance of several of the people belonging to her, being now here, with the remains of the vessel itself, and many articles found on board. The hulk is now lying off the right bank of the Coti river, opposite to the bazar of Tongarron (the capital) about 140 miles from the mouth of the river. It cannot be seen except at low water. The extreme length is 92 feet, breadth 18 feet, and, I think must have measured 110 tons. The masts and copper, together with most of the iron have long been taken away.

There are now living at the Sultan's house, a slave, two caffres, and a chuliah, which, with two others (malays) are all that remain of the crew. From all I can learn, the vessel must have sailed either from Penang or Malacca, the latter most likely, as both Colonel FARQUHAR and A. HARE Esqre., had property on board. She was, as far as I can learn, under Dutch colors, and commanded by an Englishman, who had a Dutch country-born young man as mate. There were on board, two European passengers; one, a young lady of about twenty years of age, the other a boy, not more than fifteen. This vessel had on board a very valuable cargo, consisting of opium and piece-goods. She had touched at Sambas and Pontianak, where she had been very successful in her sales. The object of her voyage appears to have been gold dust, of which she had on board one picul, besides several boxes of dollars. Whilst Captain GRAVESSOME laid off the river of Banjermassin, he unfortunately met with the notorious pirate, RAGA, a brother of the present Rajah of Pergottan, and acquainted him with the object of his voyage, who advised the Captain by all means to proceed to Coti, where he could not fail in disposing of the remainder of his opium and piece-goods, for gold dust or bird's nests; and, as Captain GRAVESSOME was unacquainted with the navigation of the place, he would himself undertake to pilot the vessel up the river, and endeavour to persuade the Sultan of Coti to purchase the opium. To these treacherous proposals the Captain unhappily consented. On arrival at the mouth of the river, they tacked the vessel up to a Bugis campong, Semerindon, about seventy-miles from the sea, and the same distance from Tongarron. There RAGA left the vessel under the pretence of making arrangements with the Sultan regarding the cargo, but in reality to obtain his consent to the perpetration of the deed contemplated, which he soon procured, and the vessel was cut off by the Bugis of Semerindon, headed by RAGA, who commenced the work by stabbing, with his own hand, Captain GRAVESSOME, in his cabin. No resistance was offered on the part of the crew, who were murdered with the exception of six; these leaped overboard, swam to the shore, and hid themselves in the jungle. The boy ran aloft at the commencement of the attack, where he was taken, but not before he was dreadfully wounded in several places by the Bugis, who paid no attention to his cries. The young woman was taken unhurt. They were sent to the capital, Tongarron, and on appearing before the Sultan, the boy (who spoke the Malayan language pretty well) fell at his feet, imploring him to spare his life, which it appears the Sultan was not at first disposed to grant, but his mother being present, (who at that time did, and does now, exercise great authority over her son) interfered, and insisted on the boy and young woman being delivered into her hands, which was accordingly done. They very soon became very great favorites with the old lady, who, for a long time, would not allow either the Sultan or any of his brothers to come near them, it being well known that none of the royal family thought themselves safe, whilst either of them lived. It was remarked of this poor lad, that he never went to sleep, without first saying his prayers, and that he observed the same practice in the morning, and likewise at his meals.

The Sultan's account of them is, that they both died of the small-pox; but, his brothers, PANGERAN ANNUM and PRABO, and many other chiefs, assured me they were poisoned. There can indeed, be little doubt of the fact, as I have heard the same from the Sultan's favorite wife, and likewise from his *gundiks*, or concubines. Besides, both these young persons always affirmed they already had had the small-pox; but, however this may be, they are certainly dead, which, considering into whose hands they had fallen, was far the best thing that could have happened to them.

After the death of Captain GRAVESSOME, (who was an elderly man) the property in the vessel was divided. RAGA the principal instigator and actor in this bloody scene, got most of the gold-dust and money, with five chests of opium. The remainder of the opium, (there were

in all 41 chests) the vessel, stores, and some bales of piece-goods were taken to Tongarron for the Sultan. The Captain's nautical instruments are now in the Sultan's house, with the cabin furniture, telescope, carpenter's tool-chest, compass &c. &c. where I every day see and handle them. THE CUDDY TABLE, *I am now writing upon*, it being, with four chairs (from the same vessel) lent me by the Sultan. This table is made of an entire piece of Amboyna-wood, and is exactly five feet in diameter, and one inch and a half thick. SAIB ABDULLA, the bandarre of Coti, has an inventory of all the articles found in this ill-fated vessel. The specie amounted to 24500 dollars, of which the Sultan got but a small portion, which occasioned a quarrel between him and RAGA, who complained of the Sultan's taking more than one-third of the whole, which it appears, was the written agreement between these worthies, previous to the catastrophe. I must not omit to mention that the guns, six iron six-pounders, are now lying under the Sultan's house.

In all the native states of Borneo, particularly those on the north-east coast, from Point Salatan to the northern extremity, Point Sooloo, bordering on the sea coast, may be seen abundance of articles belonging to European vessels. It is impossible to see the number of figure-heads of vessels stuck up in various quarters of the campongs throughout the country of Coti, and other territories adjoining, without reflecting on the dreadful fate of the crews of such vessels as have been cut off, or wrecked on this inhospitable coast. In all such transactions the Bugis are always principally concerned, who never yet spared a European, when once within their power. The fact is, this people are jealous of others participating in their trade, the profits on which are enormous. Indeed the Bugis, are by far the most intelligent traders amongst these islands, of which, in a great measure, they may be said to be absolute masters. Every Bugis is served by Malay slaves, whilst, on the contrary, it is a rare occurrence to find a Bugis slave serving a Malay master; but, beyond doubt, the Bugis are the most mercenary, blood-thirsty, inhuman race of the whole (not excepting the Diaks) and most deadly foes to all Europeans whenever they get them into their power. It is utterly impossible to deal with them, excepting in European settlements, and even then they should not be trusted beyond the range of guns. I will only further observe, that in the month of November 1827, the Coti prows, which cleared out at Singapore, captured two small vessels about half way between St. John's and the Straits of Rhio, and murdered the crews, with the exception of nine men, whom the Sultan purchased; and I saw the cargoes sold in Coti the following January. J. D.

Tongarron, Coti, Aug. 27th 1828.

[*Published in the Singapore Chronicle, December* 1829.]

MR. DALTON'S JOURNAL OF A VOYAGE FROM SINGAPORE TO COTI.

On the 3rd October 1827, I left Singapore after a residence, in that settlement of 27 months, and went on board a small prow belonging to the Sultan of Coti and bound to that place.

Coti lies to the S. E. of Borneo in latitude 1. 30. S. and longitude 123 E Few Europeans had hitherto traded so far eastward on this island; the last European (Major Mullen of the Dutch service) was murdered by the natives, about two years since. Misfortunes having long pressed me hard, I was determined to leave for a time the society of Europeans altogether, and strike into a path hitherto untrodden, in hopes of either procuring for myself a comfortable independence during the remainder of my life in England, or of losing a life, the misfortunes in which had, for many years, preponderated over the good. Knowing I should have plenty of vacant time, I proposed filling it up in writing a diary, or journal of my proceedings; considering that on visiting a strange country, I might have matters to relate somewhat new and entertaining. However, should it be otherwise, my purpose will be served, as I write for my own amusement, and as waste paper, this will do as the best.

Previous to my departure from Singapore, I obtained a very favorable letter from the Sultan of that island to the Sultan of Coti, who also gave orders to the anacodas, or captains of the prows to pay particular attention to me. The Resident and Assistant Resident likewise called the principal natives, and told them, in my presence, that should any misfortune occur to me, the Coti and Bugis prows, with their cargoes would be confiscated and themselves hanged. These threats, altho' empty, did not appear so to them, so that in reality my danger was not so great as otherwise it appeared to be, and as most of the people of Singapore represented.

The prow was burden 15 coyans, or 30 tons; had 40 people on board, which, with the number on deck, rendered a walk of two yards impossible. We should have sailed in a fleet of 20 prows, but most of them had the start of us, and others were not ready, so we were only five in company. Having some previous knowledge of these vessels, I was not surprised to find there was neither chart nor compass, on board. Few persons would like to trust themselves in one of these crazy tubs during a run of 900 or 1000 leagues, without a nautical instrument of any kind. 'Tis true they usually run along the coasts, but nevertheless are frequently three weeks or a month without seeing land. They are often lost, but the principal danger arises from the numerous pirates that infest the numerous islands in this part of the world. These marauders, particularly those from the island of Lingin, (an island laying near the Straits of Banca,) respect nothing; every vessel is fair game with them; their first object is the plunder on board; the second the prisoners, whom they sell at various places, at high prices. Lingin has always been known as the principal hold of the most desperate pirates, and it is surprising the European powers do not at once crush their strength, as the inhabitants are few and cowardly, and the country incapable of defence. This island has been twice taken by the Dutch, who laid waste the country with fire and sword; but the unwholesomeness of the climate caused them to leave it. The last time the Dutch paid them a visit in 1776, the Sultan and his family fled to the main land, but soon returned, and his grandson now governs the place, carrying on the game of robbery with great success. Malayan and Bugis prows are the favorite objects; European vessels they seldom attack unless stranded on their coast, or in some great distress. The British flag is the most respected, they not only being aware of its influence, but from the circumstance of having made many unfortunate mistakes regarding it, particularly one in 1816, when five large prows, mistaking, on a very hazy morning, an English sloop of war for an Arab, attacked her. The consequence was, in less than five minutes four of the five were sunk, each having received one broadside only. The fifth got under the land, by help of her oars. These prows had 6 guns each and 170 men, not one of whom were picked up by the sloop, but killed whilst swimming in the water by grape shot, and musketry. This circumstance makes them approach the British flag with great caution.

I have already mentioned that on board the prow, there was not room to walk. My sleeping-place was 7 feet by 3, and in height 2 feet 6 inches, so that in no part could I sit upright. It was roofed with rushes, (cadjans) leaving on one side a small hole to creep through.

4th. Under weigh with a fine wind. On the 6th, heavy rain with squalls. 7th, passed Rhio a Dutch settlement on the island of Bintang.

It is but little known to Europeans navigating amongst these islands, that excellent water is to be found on most of them. Very often vessels have been in the greatest distress when becalmed near these islands for the want of this necessary article, while the native prows at once send their boats on shore, and get it without difficulty. A man may sail about this part of the world all his life and know nothing of the matter, without he takes one trip in a prow. These prows carry very little water, when about to sail from any port; they are therefore obliged to replenish frequently, and naturally prefer the islands to Rhio, on account of the detention and expense of the latter place. There is a spring of excellent water on a small island off Rhio, which I am inclined to think the Dutch themselves are not aware of, notwithstanding they are so close. This spring will be found to bear nearly south, from the Resident's house, in the centre of a small island about 7 miles from it. The place cannot be mistaken, as there are but three islands within that distance, and this is the middle one. On approaching, an aperture or cleft in the jungle is seen, and there is the water; but should trouble occur in finding the exact spot, it will be better for the boat to pull round the island, the circumference being about 2 miles, and in so doing the labor may probably be compensated by turning over a few turtle, which are frequently seen on the beach.

On the morning of the 8 h, found ourselves close in with the island of Lingin, the much dreaded place of pirates. A dead calm, and the current setting towards the shore drove the prow within musket-shot of it, much nearer than any of us wished to be. At this time there was a square-rigged vessel within five miles of us; whether this circumstance deterred them from coming out, or they did not think us worth the trouble of taking, I cannot say. However we passed unmolested, and at 10 a. m. a smart breeze enabled us to get quickly out of their reach. In the afternoon, spoke the square-rigged vessel; she proved to be an Arab from Rhio, bound to Batavia. It was well the pirates offered no symptom of annoyance, as this pariah vessel neither could or would have assisted us. Although the Arabs are undoubtedly looked upon by the people of the East as the most favored of all nations, being the immediate descendants of Mahomet, yet of all other people they are the least liked by Europeans, and I have heard many persons of consequence say, (who have themselves been pirates) that it is from the Arabs they get their intelligence and advice how to act. They are the most impudent, dirty race in Asia, and for cunning and roguery may be matched against the sircars and dabashes of Calcutta and Madras. They are partial to European vessels, knowing their superiority, but cannot themselves navigate them: therefore they get some unfortunate or discarded officers for the purpose, giving them a miserable pittance. These poor fellows are looked upon by their masters as dogs, and treated little better. I never knew a European go twice in the same vessel; the treatment received on board, together with the scanty pay, (*id est*, when they get any) prevent a second voyage. This conduct in the Arabs does not always pass with impunity, as I know several instances when Europeans have purposely lost the vessel as some satisfaction for the wrongs received, and as none of them ensure, the loss must be great on such occasions.

The ship we spoke was commanded by an Englishman, (the only European on board) and she belonged to Said Hoosen, who was formerly well known at Paccalongan in Java.

At ten p. m. a strong breeze sprung up which, to my astonishment, sent our frail bark forward at the rate of 8 knots an hour. By day-light the next morning, we had run the Arab vessel out of sight.

9th. Very heavy rain, which completely drenched us all; it continued until the evening of the 10th, then ceased for an hour when it returned and continued 12 hours. Heavier rain I never saw. On the evening of the 11th, calm, and all hands fishing. The tackle of these people is of a very superior quality; they have a method of preparing the cotton, and after the lines are spun they rub them well with gum, taken from the tree allak. They are as strong and look as well as gymph. The hooks are inferior, being made of brass, well hardened by beating. Some excellent fish were caught: one, upon which I dined, was about the size and little inferior in flavour to the salmon. The continued rain and chilly nights had much cut up the people. There were only three persons on board who were free from colds, viz. myself, Mr. Hecksler, who accompanied me, and the d'jragon, or commander. During the

heavy rain, a glass of grog was of much service. About this time, I began to find out the character of the people with me; there were several Bugis passengers, men of property who had frequently asked of me various articles which I never refused, it being both my inclination and interest to keep friends with all. This day I was refused a piece of fish by one of the Bugis altho' they had plenty on board. I now locked up my medicine chest, and would no longer be doctor. Several of them came to me in a body begging my assistance in various ways, but I plainly told them I would rather see them die than live. The Bugis and Malays are in manner and disposition very different; from the highest to the lowest they (the Bugis) are beggars, who will ask for every thing they see, and altho' abounding in riches, will take the shirt off your back if they can get it, but the most trifling article in return they instantly refuse, and after such refusal, will immediately return to the charge of asking for something. They are most treacherous, and will steal any thing; so that a person cannot be too much upon his guard. They have the character of being much superior to the Malays in point of courage; in this there may be some truth, but the Malay will in every respect be found a superior character.

Throughout the 11th, torrents of rain with much wind; it was so dark we could not see 30 yards any way. This was rather perplexing, as by my calculation we could not be far from the S. E. point of Borneo; however, our commander did not give himself much trouble, but in the evening took in sail and employed himself in fishing all night with much success. I purchased seven fish for half a guilder, each as large as a salmon, and almost as delicious. This fish, the calcub, called by us the rock-cod, is caught in deep water, not less than 30 fathoms. They are caught in most parts of these seas, particularly off the coast of Java; however I do not recollect seeing any of this particular kind either at Penang, Malacca or Singapore. The people at those settlements are too lazy to fish in deep water, contenting themselves with what swims upon the surface. Indeed it is proverbial throughout India that the fishermen in every English settlement get their money much too easily.

On the morning of the 13th, sailed past numerous islands flanking the S. E. point of Borneo. At noon, we were well in with the mainland off Banjermassin. The appearance of the coast is wild and mountainous; none of the islands are inhabited, or indeed seldom visited, even by pirates, on account of the difficulty and danger of approaching the shore. They are all surrounded with sharp sunken rocks, amongst which sharks of the largest size continually play. There are several other kind of fish evidently different from the shark, but quite as ravenous. We caught two with heads like a fox, and teeth of an amazing length. The largest was eleven feet long. The people on board said this peculiar kind is not caught elsewhere. On the 15th close in with the mainland. The Bugis quite at home, as there is not a point or a single feature in the country with which they are not intimately acquainted. This morning the d'jragon or captain was detected breaking open a case of brandy, and stealing some bottles. On being taxed with the theft, he got into a violent rage and threatened to murder Mr. Hecksler and myself. This however was treated with such contempt that all the people burst into a loud laugh; however, knowing the vindictive character of the man, I set people to watch him, lest some attempt might be made when we were asleep; awake I did not fear any attempt; we were well armed, with many of the best people in our favor, and in case of disturbance our determination was to shoot the d'jragon, with one or two others of the most forward, which would have ensured quietness very soon. In such cases as this, if a European hesitates, he is lost. In all the Bornean states there is little or no law on the subject; therefore it is always best to begin. Shoot two or three, the remainder will submit instantly; if this is not done, the European's life is worth nothing. Let no man content himself with merely wounding a Bugis; after receiving the slightest hurt, he will follow through the world, the person who inflicted it, and never give over until his object of murder is accomplished. God knows what may occur to me, but should I be attacked openly by these wretches, I make little doubt of taking a few of them out of the world with me.

On the 16th, close in with the land, the weather close, with much rain, particularly during the night. Our water nearly expended and nothing to eat but rice with salt fish. My biscuits were all mouldy. As we had 17 men sick, it was agreed we should put into a place called Bagotta, or Pergottan, about 150 miles further eastward.

18th. Dead calm, and no land in sight. We were on short allowance of water, only a pint each to Mr. Hecksler and myself per day, with our salt fish; and this whilst the d'jragon and others were not only drinking as much as they pleased but bathing with it. We however never wanted: having two large goglets, we bribed the man who kept guard over the water, and for one

empty bottle, we had these goglets filled every night. Notwithstanding our care, we had something stolen every night; the principal thief was a slave of the Sultan of COTI.

At sunset, land in sight, rugged and very high. Several large prows, evidently pirates, prepared for mischief, passed us. On observing us they bore down, but desisted from any attempt on seeing the Coti flag, which is respected by all the Bornean pirates. It being quite calm, a small steam-vessel of war, well manned, would have had a fine opportunity of doing something, they being at least 20 miles from the shore. Nothing to eat but rice and salt. My companion and myself would have given for a beefsteak, its weight in silver.

20th. Continued calm, and out of sight of land; we saw a square-rigged vessel, but a long way off; had she been nearer I would have gone on board and begged for something to eat, being absolutely sick and faint for want of food. What rendered it more provoking was seeing some of the Bugis catching abundance of fish, one of which they would neither give nor sell. They would not give a little even to their own people, who were laying about the deck unable to rise from faintness and want of sustenance. In the evening, foul wind, and the water served out as usual, a pint each. An empty bottle always got our goglets filled; indeed for the gift of a bottle, I could have had stolen any thing, or I believe got any man's throat cut.

21st. Calm—what little wind we had, was against us. The people this day on an allowance of one pound of rice per day with half a pint of water. They brought one pint between Mr. H. and myself, which we mixed with a little brandy and drank off. They little thought that every night we obtained at least two gallons from their trusty sentinel. Provisions had been taken in for eleven days; we had now been 18, and no prospect of present relief. Bad as my situation was, contrasting it with that of the poor creatures, laying around me, I could not complain, for although I had only rice and water, yet of that I had as much as I could eat and drink, besides the enjoyment of a glass of beer, or spirits and water, which of itself, was no small luxury.

At 10 P. M. extremely close, and hot; with continued thunder and lightning, the latter playing about the land presented a most beautiful sight. It was of the forked kind, coming from every part of the sky, incessantly, for at least one hour. The soil upon this part of the coast is strongly impregnated with mineral ore which constantly attracts the lightning to the spot. From the best informed persons on board I learned that nothing lived on this particular part, neither man nor beast.

This calm was succeeded by torrents of the heaviest rain. The laziness of these people is astonishing; notwithstanding they were drooping with thirst, not one would give himself the trouble of catching a little rain water.

22nd. Continued calm. The people begging for a little rice; they however got none from me; their thievish propensities, together with refusing me fish and water, steeled my heart against any act of humanity. In the evening a little wind. At 6 P. M. saw land on the distance. At night, thunder and lightning. On the morning of the 24th close in with the mainland. The coast near Bagotta has a most dreary and desolate appearance; the mountains being high and evidently volcanic; and the coast is studded with rocks. A European vessel should never run closer than 12 or 14 miles from the shore, but make the required longitude, and then run due north, when all danger will be avoided.

25th. Calm, with continued rain; half the people could not pull a rope through weakness. At 6 P. M. a stiff breeze of wind, and at 2 in the morning of the 26th we were going 7 knots an hour, when a flash of lightning shewed the land close ahead. At this moment, there was not a single person belonging to the prow awake, not even the person who should steer. Knowing how useless it would be for me to speak to the d'jragon, and being convinced we must strike the shore in a short time, if we kept on, I went and awoke one of the Bugis passengers, who I knew had valuable property on board, telling him if we kept under sail another half hour, he would certainly lose both property and life. He immediately called the chief, when every sail was taken in. Daylight found us within gunshot of several islands, with the mainland about 5 miles. Half of these prows are lost in their passage every year; the only wonder is that any of them escape, as the people take neither care nor precaution, every thing being left to take care of itself. When once ashore, they are seldom got off, for the people, instead of exerting themselves, fall on their knees, and offer up prayers to Mahomet. At 5 P. M. entered the river of Bagotta which, at the mouth, is about 5 miles broad and landlocked on three sides. At midnight, rowed six miles further up. On the morning of the 27th, the land surrounded us, appear-

ing like an amphitheatre. From the extreme north point, where the entrance of the river is situate, to the south extreme, is a distance of at least 100 miles, an amazing extent of promontory which appears to afford effectual security to the numerous pirates always hovering about. When within 60 miles from the *Bagotta* river, numerous islands will be seen, some of them very large; between these islands, a ship coming from the westward must sail. All these islands are inhabited by pirates of the most desperate nature, so much so that even *Bagotta* and its neighbourhood stand in awe of them, although they are themselves nothing but pirates. In stating that a vessel must pass between the mainland and these islands, I mean if she comes from the westward; if from the eastward, she will make the extreme point of the main land, when the highest mountain, (there are three) will bear N.W. The course, however, will be due west until the main river opens: then the distance to the anchorage ground is about 8 miles. Vessels may lay close under the large mountain, which from its shape might very well be called the Saddle mountain. The saddle side of the shore should be kept aboard, being deepest water.

We remained in this neighbourhood many days, not one of which I expected to live through. Plunder and murder were the intention of every one who came near us.

The country is rich, but covered with jungle, and from the landing place, for many leagues, is a beautiful pebbled beach. It is quite impossible for a person to touch at this piratical country, without being particularly struck with the great beauty of the women. Every young woman was handsome, but some equal in beauty and symmetry to those in any part of the world, and quite as fair as the inhabitants of the south of Europe. I was told the women of *Bagotta* were proverbial throughout Borneo and the adjacent islands, for superior attractions. I am quite concerned to think that nature should have placed the fairest of her works, in a country inhabited by the most villainous and abandoned (probably) of the human race; but so it is, and no one can put his foot on shore without being astonished and delighted. They are not timid at the appearance of Europeans, although they so seldom see them, neither are they forward or bashful, but go about in a loose sarong, as if they had nothing to conceal, nothing to be ashamed of.

The country under this pirate contains about 1,200 square miles, without including the numerous islands. The sabundar told me the inhabitants might amount to 10,000 altogether; but from others, and what I consider to be much better information, the number was stated as 4,000. The truth might probably lay between the two. It may appear strange that so large an extent of country should contain so few inhabitants. It must be recollected, however, that most of the country, (indeed the whole with the exception of paddy fields) is little else than an impenetrable jungle, and nothing but a monkey can penetrate fifty yards from the banks of the rivers, which are very numerous. I landed on several parts of the main land, likewise upon some of the islands, but could not find a yard of clear ground, nor could I learn of any such. I was a little surprized and disappointed on finding my fowling-piece useless: as I did not see any thing to shoot at. At the place where I landed, there might be 500 people; about 20 miles further in the interior, where the Rajah keeps his seraglio, there are said to be 1500. All the people are thieves; it is indeed impossible for any man to keep their fingers out of his pockets.

All the rivers are infested by alligators of the largest kind; the people are always on their guard, as it is no uncommon occurrence for them to be dragged from the boats by them. The inhabitants are miserably poor; as on shore no work of any kind is carried on, every body lives by plunder; there is neither law nor regulation; the stronger preys upon the weaker; and the Rajah takes from every one. The women, as throughout Borneo, are abject slaves; they plant and gather the paddy crops, do all the household and out-of-door work, such as fishing and paddling in the canoes, are ill-used, and think themselves well off, if they get the heads of the fish themselves have caught. There is little or no trade carried on; the Bugis captains assured me that to land my goods were to throw them away, as no instance occurred since this present Rajah reigned, of any person having been paid; money was out of the question; what little import there is consists of the articles tobacco and gambier, in return for which they receive rattans, which are abundant and of the best kind.

We laid in a small stock here at moderate prices; fowls 12, one rupee; eggs 60, a rupee; pine-apples very fine, 30 a rupee. There are a few ducks, but a goose, the rajah informed me, was never seen in the country. There are lots of deer, but the people are too indolent to look after them.

From this place we went to *Batalicking*, the rajah of which country was on a visit at

Bagotta during our stay. I spoke with him; he is a pleasant old man of perhaps 60, and is highly spoken of, as a strong contrast to his neighbour, and is believed to be friendly to Europeans. The Rajah of *Bagotta* is about 40 years of age, tall and well made, but of a most forbidding countenance; he looks like what he really is, a captain of banditti.

On Tuesday 4th December, broke ground and left this vile place, which I can with truth say I never expected to do alive. Standing out of the river in company of about 25 other prows, our course was south, which agrees with a former observation. On rounding the point, the wind was fair, which gave us a fine run for two days. On the evening of the 7th, caught a sight of Palang Papang—a high mountain 20 miles island, N. W. of the mouth of *Coti* river, from whence come much black birds' nests. On making the mouth of Coti river, a vessel of any considerable size should bring *Palang Papang* to bear due north, and not approach the shore during the night, nearer than 13 or 15 miles. By not observing this we got aground three times about 6 miles from the shore, notwithstanding we only drew 7 feet water. On bringing the mountain north, steer parallel with the shore east, when an opening will be perceived in the land which is the mouth of the large river; bring the opening due north, and steer directly east. In this direction the water will be found deep.

On getting into the track described, we had 6 and 7 fathoms water. I would by no means advise a vessel to enter this river, except with a light and leading wind, there being rocks and shoals on both sides; boats should be ahead, that in the event of the wind failing, she might be towed in the proper track. On passing the bar, where, as has been already stated, 6 and 7 fathoms were found, a vessel of any burden will ride in the greatest safety. The soil outside the bar is mud and clay, much like that in Batavia and Singapore roads. The breadth at first does not exceed that of the Thames and swarms with large alligators.

By the 10th, we had pulled and tracked about 30 miles, when the river becomes very broad and forms a deep bay. A few miles further up, it narrows again, and branches off into two rivers; we pursued the northern one which is the larger, and about 10 A. M. on the 11th we arrived at a considerable village called *Semerindan* containing about 500 people principally Bugis. The people live mostly in huts built upon the water, and are consequently always afloat; they have a most miserable appearance, but appear well satisfied with their situation. All the provisions we could procure were one fowl and 8 eggs, although there were abundance in the place. Here we were obliged to remain until the sabundar came down the river. This officer, it appears, was in attendance on the Sultan, who had assembled the chiefs of his country to know what measures should be adopted to stop the small-pox which had already carried off many hundreds in his country. All the people have the greatest dread of this disorder. Another dreadful sickness had been raging throughout the country, and taken off a fourth of the population. From what I could understand, I consider it the cholera morbus.

On the 12th, the Sabundar paid us a visit, having been sent by the Sultan to forward us, and on the next day we left the prow, with all our baggage. After taking some refreshment with the sabundar, we started again in a handsome swift-boat, which, at 12 o'clock next day, brought us to one of the Sultan's country-houses, about 9 miles from the capital. After putting ourselves in some little order, we were ushered into the presence of the Sultan, the sabundar carrying my letter and present (a piece of red cloth) on a silver salver. We met with a kind reception and I soon found myself quite at home. The Sultan is about the age of 38, of a pleasing countenance and affable address. We found him in company with his brothers and surrounded with the chiefs of the country. Compliments being passed, the Sultan requested me to shew him the method of using a detonating gun, which I had brought, and which I managed with success, to the utter astonishment of all present, who could not conceive how the fire was produced. A musical box much pleased him; after requesting us to pass the night with him, dinner was produced, the sight of which nearly made me sick. He then wanted me to engage in cock-fighting which I refused. On the morning, we all left together, and by 12 o'clock arrived at the capital, TONGARRON.

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MR. DALTON'S JOURNAL OF A TOUR UP THE COTI RIVER.

On the 4th of August 1828, I left TONGARRON and proceeded up the river. After proceeding about 15 miles, the river runs very narrow, (at one part not above two hundred yards across,) making a course towards the north-east. It, however, soon widens to the usual breadth. On the morning of the 5th, passed on the eastern side of *Pooloo Ripar*, an island in the centre of the river which, at this place, is about 4 miles across. This island is not more than three miles in length, and two in breadth, but is not inhabited, although there were formerly houses, when there was a guard kept upon it to prevent prows proceeding up the river without a pass, for which it is well adapted. The trees are swarming with monkeys, and there is abundance of excellent fish in the river. We stopped to breakfast on the right bank, where there is a branch of the river. PANJERAN LEMA, one of the Sultan's relations was here at the time, but would allow no person to go up the small river, on account of the small-pox. During the last 24 hours, I calculate we have travelled 36 miles, against the stream. At 4 P. M. passed a place called Piolum, where the trees are very high, and a beautiful green slope rises from the water to some distance. The prospect here is very rich, the country having the appearance of high cultivation, which however is not the case. Here are, at least, 100 houses. During the last 20 miles, our course was west and south. On the opposite side we took refreshment, stopping about 3 hours. Here, upon a pleasant hill, are five houses, and about 10 more in a valley somewhat further. The trees have been cut from about 30 acres of land and rice and sugar-cane planted. We procured some fowls and eggs, the former one fanam each, the latter 8 for a fanam. The people were not particularly civil, notwithstanding the great looks of the bandarre SAIB ABDULLAH, who considered himself a demi-god amongst them; but the orang puteh obtained some little attention. The women and children here and at other places flocked to look at a European, never having seen one since the ill-fated Major MULLEN went up the river. At this place, that officer also stopped to take refreshment and make observations. The night was pleasantly cool. On the morning of the 6th, saw some immense alligators basking on the banks, in the mud. From day-light our course was N. W. About 12 miles from PIOLUM, the river is narrow, being not more than 800 yards across, in many parts not more than 400. The higher I ascend the country, the more beautiful it appears: hill and dale in pleasing variety, interspersed with clumps of the tallest trees. The verdure is rich beyond any thing I have seen in India; indeed, no country, however highly cultivated, can produce such views. By 12 o'clock we had not got more than 12 miles in the 24 hours. About 2 P. M. the scene altered, high land closing in the prospect, and the river narrowing for several miles, it being here not more than 160 to 200 yards across. On the left bank there is a continual ridge of hill of from 300 to 500 feet, crowned with the tallest trees. At 6 P. M. stopped to eat, opposite the mountain KIRTA, which rises perhaps 1000 feet. Some distance before this, the river again widens to a mile, course N. Goonung KIRTA, is on the left bank. Some little time before this, passed a sharp point of land on the right bank called *Tanjong Basar*; it forms an elbow and is very remarkable. The river here is irregular, alternately broad and narrow from 100 yards to a mile.

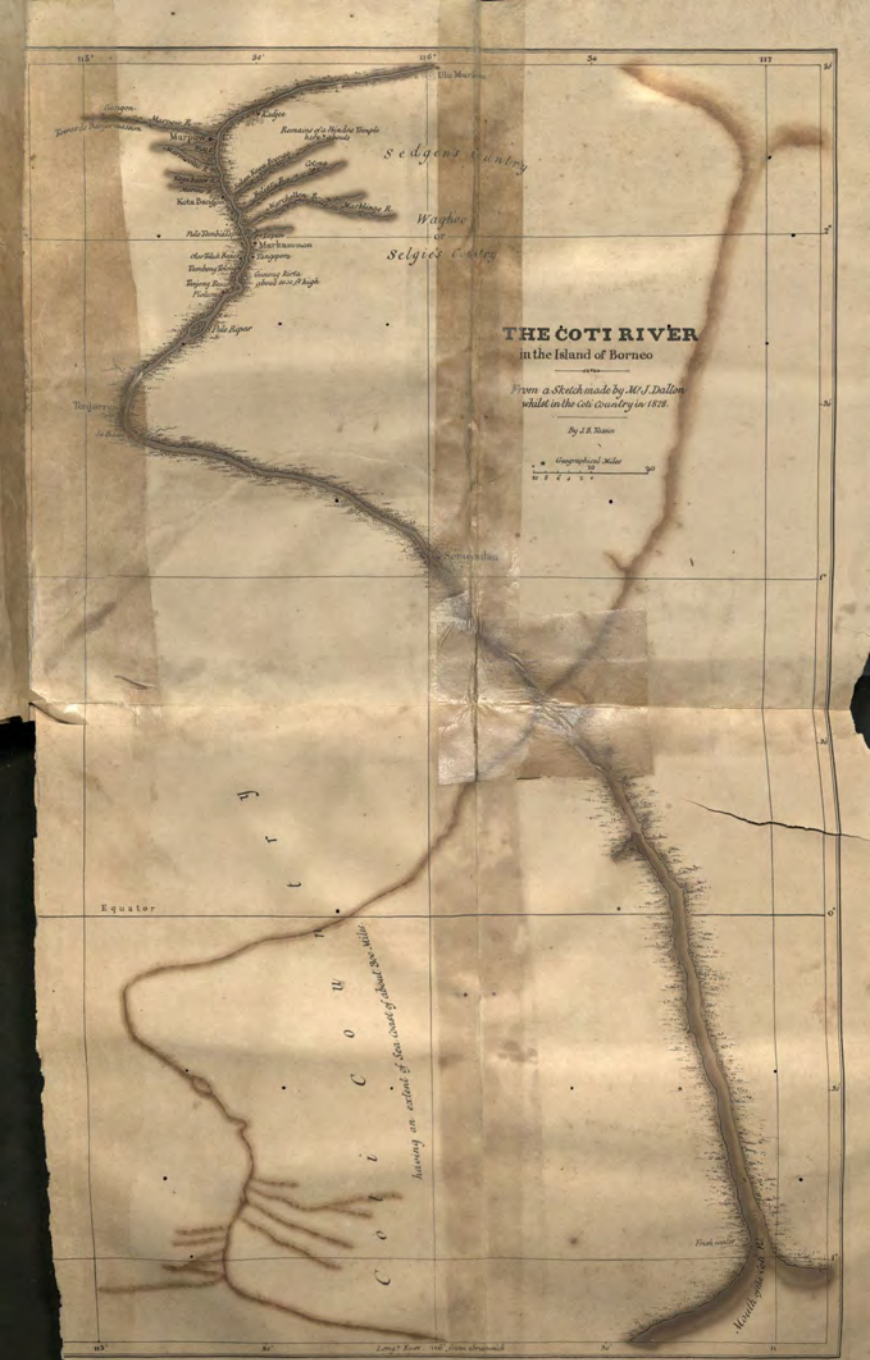
On the 7th, at 6 P. M. arrived at *Tambong Tolong*, situated on the right bank; here we breakfasted, the people as usual shewing great reluctance to acknowledge they had fowls or eggs. The fact is, these poor creatures are so robbed by the Bugis in their journies up the country that they plead poverty on all occasions; we however got a couple of poor fowls.

It is astonishing to observe how dreadfully the whole of the people are afraid of the small-pox; before every hut, on both banks of the river, is hung a bamboo line, signifying *Paterma*, which is a signal signifying no one must enter; to attempt an entrance when this is the case would bring on a battle, as the people are provided with spears and mandows, (swords.) On the approach of a boat of any kind, all the children are called within the campong; many of the families isolate themselves from all society, not even going occasionally to the bazar, pre-

ferring to live upon fruit, rice and fish, rather than take articles for sale when they may possibly bring home this dreadful disease. At this place, *Tambong Tolong*, there may be 60 houses. On the opposite bank, (the river being here about 400 yards across) there are likewise a few straggling huts, the people being employed in cutting trees, preparatory to planting the sugar-cane. At this place, a few days since, two men were taken by an alligator, which was afterwards caught; it was more than five fathoms long. These creatures swarm throughout this river, and it is dangerous to venture a few yards off the banks; when the banks are of mud it would be madness to do so. Notwithstanding the care the people take, there is scarcely a family that has not, at one time or other, lost some of its members. The alligators are more daring than I have observed them elsewhere, the people not considering themselves safe in a small canoe. It is curious to observe the cunning they show in catching the monkeys; they are to be seen under the fruit-trees overhanging the banks of the river, often 8 or 10 together; they usually lie among the high grass, which in some degree conceals them; there they wait until the evening, when the monkeys come down to drink, when they make a rush and seldom fail in taking two or three. It is remarked they take their station early in the day, so that the monkeys in the evening see no stir in the water. These animals are never seen on the high trees by the waterside except in the morning and evening. One or two of the alligators will lay in such a manner as the hind half of their bodies is on the land covered with grass and mud: when the monkeys are drinking, they give a never-failing blow with their tails, sweeping the whole into the water, when they become an easy prey. About two miles further on is *Olar Teluk Basar*, which forms a bay on the right bank; there are about a dozen houses. The spot is in no other way remarkable than for the vast number and voracity of the alligators; within the last month nine people, (4 men, 2 women, and 3 children) being taken. A few miles further o , the left bank, is a point called *Tangepora*. Course N.W. The river is about 400 yards broad, with a current of 4 knots.

By 12 o'clock we arrived at *Markammon*, having gone in the 24 hours, 45 miles, making about 122 miles from *Tongarron*. *Markammon* is a considerable place, where the Sultan formerly lived when the Bugis drove him from *Tongarron*. It is situated on the left bank, and contains about 3000 inhabitants. Pangeran RATO'S son is the chief of this place, which he left some days previous to my arrival, having been informed by his father that I was on my way up the country. He went through *Tongarron* during the night on his way to *Semerindan*. At this place, the river branches off into two rivers, one running W. N. W. the other S.E. We pursued the former one, which is the broadest. Up the other is a hill called *Gunong Sejampoot* under which are about 40 houses. Here there are two islands, one on the left, called *Pooloo Lepan*, that on the right *Pooloo Tambie Tapie*. On this latter there is a campong of about 60 houses. It is situated on a rising ground, in a fine situation. Here I observed many Diaks. The river now preserves its breadth of about 400 yards. I shot at several large red monkeys who appeared no ways shy. They were, however, too large to be brought down with small shot. This and the foregoing night we were almost devoured with musquitoes; they are of a very large size, and so numerous, that they blacken any articles they light upon. There is a complaint brought on by the bites of these insects which often turns to mortification, of which numbers of children annually die. The people in the boat were so stung, and deprived of sleep that they could eat no breakfast in the morning. I was almost worried, notwithstanding a gauze curtain which I managed to wrap about me. The sandflies are numerous and quite as bad as the musquitoes. No curtain of cloth will keep out these little insects; they are not larger than a grain of sand, and insinuate themselves every where until they arrive at the skin, between which and the flesh they bury themselves, causing an itching as intense and more durable than the musquitoes, and covering the part with blood.

About this place there are many small rivers running N.N. E. By 12 o'clock made 35 miles; here again the river branches off into two equal parts, that to the S. E. leading to the country of WAGHOO, a Diak chief; the main one, which we followed, runs N.W. That to the S.E. is named *Kalawa Beliar*. Seven miles further, the river branches again into equal parts, that to the S.E. *Kaya Boonga*, Major MULLEN and his party went up for the purpose of seeing the remains of a Hindoo Temple, which are common about the country. It is about 35 miles distant, which the Major went in one day; he returned the third day, and pursued the N.W. river. About ½ of a mile further on the right bank we passed *Tanna Pinda*; it is not otherwise remarkable than the trees forming a large concave, which is filled up to the water's edge with


THE COTI RIVER
in the Island of Borneo
From a Sketch made by Mr J. Dalton
whilst in the Coti Country in 1828.
By J. B. Tassin
Geographical Miles
Ulu Murian
Kadjee
Marpoo R.
Marpoo
Kota Bangor
Sedgen's Country
Waghoo
or
Selgie's Country
Markhillon R.
Markhillon
Pulo Tambillo
Markammon
Tangopon
Tambong Tobo
Tanjong Rinta
Pulo Ripar
Tonjarron
Semandan
Equator
Coti Country
having an extent of Sea Coast of about 300 Miles
Fresh water
Mouth of the Coti R.
Long. East 116° from Greenwich

high rushes. Close by is a plantation; on the opposite side is a mudbank upon which several large alligators were seen basking. At 4 P. M. caught sight of *Cota Bangon*, a considerable town; it is seen, as it were, at the termination of the river, which for six miles is perfectly straight. It has the appearance of a villa at the termination of a beautiful canal. On the right bank are a few houses and a few trees; on the left is a jungle with a border of high grass on the water's edge. The distance from *Markammon* to *Cota Bangon* is 45 miles.

This town or campong is situate on the right bank of the river, where it forms a bend, having the appearance of a bay; here there are nearly 4000 inhabitants, chiefly women and children. Immediately behind the campong is a large lake of water, in which are abundance of teal. Whilst I was here, the heavy rain prevented me from shooting, which I had intended; had time allowed me, I would have remained at this place a couple of days, enjoying this sport. Major MULLER remained at *Cota Bangon* two days and nights. The people here say the Major expressed himself highly gratified with the situation of the place, and took unusual pains, with his European people, in making his observations; indeed the situation of the place is exactly such as must strike the idea of a military man. Near the campong on the same side are two projecting points of land, commanding both entrances to the river; on either point vessels must approach within 150 yards of each prominence. They are eminences of from 20 to 30 feet high, and the only ones near the place. It is altogether a very choice spot. Some years since the present Sultan burnt down all the houses, and killed about 400 men belonging to his brother Pangeran ANNUM, with whom he was at war. At present most part of the male population are assembled at *Marpow* where the Sultan remains, for the purpose of carrying on the war with SEDGEN.

9th August. Remained most of the day at *Cota Bangon* on account of the rain. For the last 10 miles approaching this place, the course is S. E.—on proceeding up the river, it runs west. Saw some alligators' eggs, and procured two.

10th. Left *Cota Bangon* at 5 A. M. and proceeded W. the river is from 4 to 500 yards broad. After proceeding about 12 miles the river runs S. W. for some distance, after which it runs S. being about 200 yards broad, with a current of 4 knots. We received news of several Bugis being killed in WAGHOO'S and SEDGEN'S countries, having been caught robbing the burial places of the dead chiefs. Our run this day was 35 miles.

11th. At 8 A. M. our course lay W. and N. W. the river being about 300 yards broad. From *Cota Bangon* to *Marpow* the whole of the houses (of which there are great numbers) are entirely deserted in consequence of the war with SEDGEN. Near the river *Kaya Batto* on the opposite or left bank, are remains of a large campong; the ground is cleared and cultivated for a considerable distance around. Nothing is left of perhaps 150 houses but the skeletons. At 3 P. M. passed *Montee* where the river forms itself into a large basin, after making a course from N. to W. There is here a river leading by a short cut to *Marpow*; the water is however, too shallow to admit a boat of any size. In the night, I was awakened by the splashing of several large alligators round the boat; there was much rain and wind.

12th. Got under weigh at 5 A. M. course W. For the last 4 days, nothing to eat, but rice with an egg or two, and occasionally a little bad coffee. We had only one fowl the first day.

At 11 P. M. the d'ragon passed on his way to *Semerindan*, having a letter to the bandarre to pass his prow to Singapore. By his account, the Sultan was in great perturbation about the war with SEDGEN. This Sultan left the capital 2 months since with the avowed intention of having the heads of SEDGEN and his whole family, because the annual tribute of Diak children, was not forthcoming. These children were invariably sold to the Bugis as slaves. The Sultan however finds a little trouble in giving the necessary orders to his people, and calls upon every one to pity him, on pain of his displeasure. In every respect this is the most weak-minded man I have ever met with. It likewise appears that SELIGOOLE, another Diak chief, makes great demur to the request of the Sultan to send him his daughter for marriage, the whole of the Diak people being much against it, saying the Sultan of Coti does not treat his wives well, turning them away, or using them like concubines after a few weeks. Besides which, they do not relish the idea of having the girl circumcised, which is necessary ere she can have the honor of such an alliance. The Sultan has already five wives.

At 4 P. M. course W. the river 300 yards broad. Caught several kinds of the most delicious fish, the species of which I have not seen before; one, of the salmon kind, was particularly delicious, and of nearly as good a flavour as that fish.

9. P. M. arrived a *Marpow*, 45 miles, and had an immediate audience of the Sultan who gave me a gracious reception. After a supper of hard-boiled eggs, stinking fish and some excellent rice, I got to sleep at 3 P. M. within the sanctum sanctorum. 14th. Went round the place; it contains about 3000 people, two thirds of whom are Diaks. Under each of their huts is a pig-stye, with at least half a dozen grunters as fine and cleanly kept, as ever I saw in Hampshire: they are of the China breed. Upon these and yams the Diaks here chiefly live, but they have, besides, the finest fish of different species, to catch which they have nothing to do but throw a net into any part of the river. From *Marpow* there are two rivers, one to the west leading to *Bangon* about 25 miles distant from thence, in the direction of *Banjermassin*. The first 100 miles is by the river, after which it must be travelled on foot. The people here say the journey overland to *Banjermassin* may be performed in 25 days, but it is very dangerous to attempt it, the road leading through the very worst part of the Diak country. From the manner in which the journey is spoken of, there can be little doubt travelling through, must be attended with extreme difficulty and danger. The other and larger river runs N. E. and leads to *Ulu Markam*, a campong about 5 days journey distant. *Marpow*, however, is the termination of the Sultan of Coti's proper dominions. Indeed, for the last 150 miles there are more Diaks than other people. Up the river, Major MULLEN went with his party, and was disposed of some days after he left the place. The intelligence of his death, and the spoils arriving here soon after his departure. All my researches cannot discover that the Major ever reached *Ulu Markam*; the best opinion is, he was murdered three days journey from hence; I am inclined to think so, as no inducement of mine will procure the Sultan 's permission to proceed to *Ulu Markam*. He says it is not safe, as the people are perfectly wild.

At this place great feasting is going on, on account of two Diak heads, which have been just brought in. It appears Pangeran ANNUM has undertaken the command at present, having with him about 200 men. This stupid creature who formerly rebelled against the Sultan and who had a principal hand in MULLEN'S death, volunteered his services on this occasion, and caught two Diaks who were fishing; their excuse was of no avail; this brave warrior murdered them in cold blood, and sent their heads to the Sultan.

15th. Still at *Marpow*; I had a violent attack of bowel complaint in consequence of drinking some of the Sultan's sour wine, which prevented me from shooting.

16th. My illness has gone, and left nothing but a voracious appetite, which I could get nothing to satisfy; there being nothing to eat but rice and stinking fish, with an egg or two. Perhaps the poorest person in the place does not fare so badly as the Sultan.

This day, a letter was received from the Diak Rajah SELGIE giving notice he was approaching with 1500 men to assist in the war against SEDGEN. The Sultan only expected 500 men, and hearing of so many approaching he became frightened, and is, at this moment, as much alarmed as if there were enemies approaching, instead of known friends; every man is obliged to turn out on guard.

August 17th. Nothing particular except, as usual, being present at the cockfighting between the Sultan and the Diak Rajahs, at which the Sultan usually won.

18th. This evening the Pangeran RATO'S son came to me with a strange request that I would allow him to accompany me to Singapore, as he wished to see other countries. This young man told me he had several times been refused by the Sultan, when he wanted to leave the country; but now he understood there would be no objection to his going with me. He declared he would serve in any capacity, and trust himself altogether in my hands.

I replied that I would take the matter into consideration. This is another instance of the light character of these people; although it is generally known he was the identical man who killed Major MULLEN, yet he, as well as every other person in the country, thinks the circumstance is long forgotten; and has no idea that the murder of a European party of 25 men would excite angry sensations elsewhere. This son of the Pangeran Rato is extremely ignorant; not being able to write or read, which many of the common people can do. He seconds the Sultan's cocks, and is always gambling; he has an idea that he is possessed of much more bravery than most men, having, by his own account, killed several Diaks, besides the Major. He is of a very forbidding countenance.

There are here at present 106 Diak Rajahs, each having from 300 to 1,000 men. We are looking out for a new arrival of Diaks of a different race from those now here.

19th. This day, I had a very sharp bout with the Sultan who was determined to impose upon me in every manner; but it is of no use to argue with him, as he looks to his own in-

terest only, and right or wrong pursues it ; however, I believe I had the best of it this time.

On the 20th. Looking for the Diak Rajah SELGIE who arrived in the evening, with about 200 men, being the advance-guard of his people. The next morning the Sultan received him with some ceremony. This chief is about 50 years of age, of gigantic size and bone ; he has the character and appearance of being a man far more intelligent than any of the other people I have yet seen. He was accompanied by 5 of his wives ; he has 22 in all, the daughters of Rajahs, and fifteen children, five of whom accompanied him, two small children and three remarkably stout young men. The lobes of their ears were pierced and dragged down with weights below the breasts ; scarcely one of the party was without three or four human heads, which they carry with them wherever they go, as tokens of bravery. SELGIE himself has 150, and one of his sons, about 20 years of age, nine.

At night all the Diaks assembled, when two of SELGIE'S sons treated us with the war dance ; it is performed with the mandow and shield, accompanied with, a wind instrument, composed of several bamboos ; it has a very pleasing sound somewhat similar to the Irish pipes, but does not appear to me to have more than four or five notes. The women likewise danced, particularly the Rajah's wives, who are all daughters of Rajahs, every one being anxious to give his daughter to so powerful a chief as SELGIE.

23rd. At 7. P. M. started on a return. Arrived at *Cota Bangon* at 4 P. M. of the 25th. Here one of the Sultan's people overtook us, with an order from the Sultan for SAIB ABDULLAH to return to *Marpow* again. On the evening of the 26th. arrived at TONGARRON.

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MR. DALTON'S ESSAY ON THE DIAKS OF BORNEO.

In every part of those portions of *Borneo* which I have visited, there are to be seen undoubted proofs that the island was formerly inhabited by a different race of men than those who at present occupy it. I shall say little respecting the Malays who are evidently merely settlers, and only to be found on the coasts, or as slaves in the interior. On the eastern or most extensive coast of *Borneo*, there is a great mixture of the Bugis blood amongst the Malays; the whole of the Rajahs and principal men are of Bugis extraction, and are more or less related to families on the Celebes; hence arises the great influence those people possess over the country. No Malay, whatever his property may be, is looked upon with the same respect as a Bugis; they are in every respect treated as an inferior people, in *Coti* particularly, where neither a Malay nor his property can be considered safe. Wherever they are seen, their employment is of the most servile description, mere slaves. Perhaps, throughout the Archipelago, it would be difficult to find a dozen families with Bugis slaves; even the work of coolies to Europeans they commonly refuse, conceiving it a degradation to labor for those whom, notwithstanding, they acknowledge as their superiors. A Bugis will not hesitate to sell himself to another Bugis; but even then he does not consider himself a slave, neither will he allow any one to call him such; he is a *karwan*, and may redeem himself by paying the purchase money. On the other hand, a Malay is a *budak batoole*, and is not merely a slave to his purchaser, but to every one of his *karwans*.

By all ranks of men on *Borneo*, the Diaks are considered the aborigines,—the orang benoa of the country. The Diaks are a very peculiar race of men, totally distinct in manner and appearance from all other inhabitants of the earth. There are no people either like them, or who can be said to bear the slightest resemblance; and their habits and dispositions are equally unlike those of all other nations. The islands of *Borneo* and *Celebes* are their countries; elsewhere they are not to be found. In both those islands, but particularly that of *Borneo*, they are to be met with, every where. At *Pontianak* and *Coti*, the extremes of the island, east and west, they are within a few miles of the coast. The same from Point *Salatan* to *Sooloo*, north and south points, nearly a distance of one thousand miles of coast. In no part does it appear they possess the sea-coast; it is however, quite impossible for any person to penetrate a few miles towards the interior without finding specimens of this strange race. In all parts of the island, there is a general likeness amongst them, varying according to their different habits and manners of dress; but towards the centre, inclining to the north, they are less tractable, roving about the woods, perfectly naked and wild; and in every respect may be said to live in a state of nature. That the Diaks are the aborigines of the country, I believe no one has hitherto doubted. Taking this for granted, for a moment, for the sake of argument, how happens it that in the very inmost recesses of the mountains, as well as all over the face of the country, the remains of temples and pagodas are to be seen, similar to those found on the continent of India, bearing all the traits of Hindoo mythology? In the country of WAGHOO, at least 400 miles from the coast, I have seen several of very superior workmanship with all the emblematical figures so common in Hindoo places of worship. I cannot be mistaken, having travelled in *Bengal* as well as on the *Coromandel Coast*, likewise over most parts of *Java*, where such remains are common; besides, I have with me fac-similes of several temples discovered on the latter island and brought into notice by Sir T. S. RAFFLES, with prints of many of the pagodas in India. The resemblance is exact; as are the images or statues, which are found in precisely the same positions, as they are to be seen in Continental India, Java, and some other islands of this Archipelago. I have seen some hundred stone images of such description, and many of brass; the latter however are not so common, as I have reason to believe the Diaks melt those of that metal to fabricate fishhooks, rings, and other articles of decoration. In most of the pagodas and temples, both within and without, are to be seen, in tolerably good preserva-

tion, hieroglyphical characters, used by the Hindoos: many of these, as well as the images, are much broken and defaced by the Agis or Mahometan priests, and their followers, the Arabs, who, like many sects of Christians, will tolerate no absurdities but their own.

There is throughout the country, a tradition that at some remote period, a large part of the island was inhabited by Chinese, and these are the remains of their places of worship and houses of the princes; this opinion is general among the Diaks: indeed, I may say it is the universal sentiment of all such as ever thought on the subject, including all the Arab and Bugis priests, likewise the Sultan of *Coti*.

As for the opinions of the Diaks, it cannot be of the least consequence, as, excepting what they hear related from old people they are in utter ignorance of any transactions in the country beyond their individual remembrance.

During my travels through five Rajah's countries, each of which was ruled by a powerful chief, I met with but three men who could write; they were three Diak chiefs of SEDGEN'S country, who had been taught the Bugis language by an Agi, and were looked upon as prodigies; with these people it is all tradition; they are born and die, without knowing any thing except what is seen by themselves: therefore all their knowledge and information on historical matters connected with their country are derived from their intelligent neighbours the Bugis, and such Arabs as occasionally penetrate their country. To prove to me that Chinese did formerly occupy the island, many implements of husbandry were produced which had been dug up at various times, with cooking utensils, mostly of brass; but the whole of these were of Indian form and manufacture, such as at this moment are used in most part of Hindustan by the natives. The burial places are likewise pointed out, and these a person cannot well be mistaken in, who has been accustomed to the Chinese; the whole are evidently remains of Hindoo architecture and customs; even many of the tanks are yet remaining, particularly some large ones near the principal pagodas, (an indisputable proof of their origin). Had the Chinese at any time possessed the country, numerous vestiges would doubtlessly yet be seen in the adjacent hills of their places of interment, as that people always select such spots, and here they are abundant, suitable to all ranks of men. Nothing of the kind can, however, be seen; most of the places of interment are to be found near the pagodas, and about the tanks. It must be observed that most of the higher classes, such as Rajahs, Pangerans, and Agis, who profess to know more of this and all other subjects, have never left the island of *Borneo*, excepting perhaps on a visit to the Celebes, where little of the Chinese, and nothing of the Hindoo character can be seen. Even the most superior men in point of information, such as the Agis, and Bugis priests who accompanied the Sultan of *Coti* up the country at the period I was with him, had, with but two exceptions, been no further than Java, Penang and perhaps Acheen; so that with the exception of these two men and myself, no one had been in Bengal or Madras, or had ever seen similar buildings unless amongst Europeans and Chinese; therefore as it was certain the former could never have occupied the island, there was no alternative but to fix upon the latter. These two Arabs who had travelled much, were altogether of my opinion, although they dare not openly so express themselves; as the Sultan had declared I was mistaken and could not know these matters so well as himself, who derived his information directly from Mahomet with whom he conversed daily. When the Sultan put the question one evening to those around him, I was at once silenced by the unanimous cry of "who shall dare to contradict Mahomet's favorite on earth?" There is one point upon which we may all agree; that, from the time Mahometanism was first introduced into these islands, no other people have been known or heard of in Borneo but the Diaks.

In tracing back the historical part of this portion of the Archipelago, I am at a loss to know where we must look for authentic records, if we refuse those of the Bugis, or the wandering tribe of Arabs, who were evidently well known as traders to these parts long before Mahomet sent forth the koran. The Bugis are by far the most enlightened people amongst these islands; they keep regular records of past events which, in my humble opinion may be much relied on, on all subjects of this nature; perhaps on any subject to which are they equal excepting that of religion; and such Europeans as wish to gather information on historical points will be much more likely to succeed by consulting the learned men of *Kylie*, *Macassar*, *Wagoo* or *Boni*, than in any other part of the Archipelago, or even on the Malayan Peninsula. I question much if more certain information may not be gathered in *Celebes* and the *Moluccas*, on Malayan subjects generally than elsewhere; of *Borneo* particularly, the eastern parts of which island are best known at *Macassar*, which

country was governed by a powerful king who received tribute from *Boni* and *Waagoo* long after the Portuguese conquered the former country.

In looking at a map we find *Macassar* but a short sail from *Borneo*; from Point Mandhaar, a vessel can run in twenty-four hours; I have known the native prows effect the passage in two days. I believe all writers treating on this subject have taken their information from the Malayan accounts; no traveller has hitherto visited the Bugis countries with a view of acquiring information. Mr. CRAWFURD'S remarks are mostly confined to their traffic; they are very general, and as far as I know, correct. I am at a loss to guess where this gentleman picked up his information regarding that part of the *Celebes* island, between Point *Mandhaar* and *Kylie*; I was living at *Mamoodjoo* and *Panumpan* three months, during which time I went much about the country, but could never learn of any European having been there before me; (the curiosity of the people to see a white man was wonderful;) however this may be, Mr. CRAWFURD'S work contains much true information of the country, the manners of the inhabitants, and productions.

Besides the approximation of the Bugis countries to *Borneo*, the Bugis are, I conceive, a distinct race of men from the Malays; in point of intellectual knowledge and various acquirements infinitely superior to them; in appearance there is a similarity, but much more between the Bugis and Amboynese; their language is distinct from both.

The inhabitants of *Macassar* bear all the marks of an ancient people; they are undivided, and although conquered, certainly not subdued, unlike the Malays, who are a wandering unsettled race, and know not their mother country. Let the fact be considered that no part of the *Celebes* has ever been conquered by Europeans but *Macassar*; incursions have been made into *Boni*, but not a foot of ground retained, and at this moment no European dare set his foot in that country. Since the expedition of General VAN GEEN, all trade has been stopped; not a single prow from *Boni* has visited *Macassar*. *Waagoo* is yet less known, and every other part of the coast or country, not at all. All the native states retain their primitive greatness, and the most enlightened of them have not been visited by Europeans.

The Bugis are the only traders of any consequence throughout the Archipelago, if we except the Arabs. All the large prows belong to these people, whilst the small ones are the property of Malays. These are certain prizes to the former, whenever they are met with at sea; every Bugis prow is a pirate and the Malay vessel lawful game wherever found; indeed the Bugis consider nature intended the Malays to be their slaves, and act accordingly.

It is necessary all these circumstances should be considered, if we wish to trace back the history of these nations, with any certainty; as those we find most powerful, most enlightened, and more particularly such as by written documents, hand down to posterity recorded facts, in a regular unbroken method, with concurrent proofs of circumstances occurring at remote periods, must claim a preference of belief and credence, rather than the contradictory and garbled statements often met with in the writings of those who have treated on the subject.

Many writers on various parts of the Malayan Peninsula and Archipelago have commenced their works by informing us that in most places are to be seen Hindoo temples and pagodas similar to those on the continent of India, and naturally enough infer that at some remote period those countries must have been inhabited by Hindoo and Gentoo worshippers; they then attempt to trace the history of them, which they do by making enquiries on the spot, receiving for truth, whatever may be told them by Sultans and Rajahs, few of whom can shew a connected written history of their country for the last one hundred and fifty years, or even half of that time. Every Rajah or great Chief is interested in the antiquity of his family, considering the nearer he can bring the founder of such family to have lived to the epoch of Mahomet's flight from Medina, the greater must be the honor due him; hence we find in "MARSDEN'S account of Sumatra," that the Sultan JUHAN SHAH established Islamism on that island about our year 1276. The Sultan of *Johore* says the founder of his family and great ancestor, MOHUN MAHUMMUD, established the faith long before that period. Twenty other Sultans and Rajahs can be named, each one contending for the prior claim of antiquity, and amongst others, the illustrious Sultan of *Coti*, MAHUMMUD SALI HOODEN, in whose bamboo capital I am now writing. He has taken wonderful pains to convince me that he is the direct descendant of Mahomet. As I believe the geneological tree of the *Coti* Sultan to be as well grafted as most of them, I will transcribe the account of it, written in the koran of the Kraja of *Tongarron*, by NABBEE ACHMET who came down from heaven on purpose:

"Soon after the great prophet Mahomet ascended into Heaven from *Mecca*, his second

and favorite brother, whose name was likewise Mahomet, dreamed that the prophet appeared to him in the shape of a comet, inviting him forth to preach the true doctrine; he accordingly arose and embarked on board a ship with some chosen followers. They had no occasion for compass or sails as the comet kept before the vessel, and the wind favored them. After being on the ocean one year, during which period no land was seen, a country was described in the west, over which the comet remained stationary: this was *Coti*. Mahomet landed at a place now called *Cinculeram*, when he fell asleep, and his brother again appeared before him, standing upon the mountain *Baley Papang*; with a loud voice he ordered a kingdom to be founded, and a capital built which should be considered second only to *Mecca*. The prophet disappeared after leaving the koran written by a celestial hand. On awaking, Mahomet found himself in another part of the country, where he built the capital, calling it *Tongarron*, after the name of the ship which brought them safe. Here it was the koran was first opened by Mahummud Sali Hooden, the first Sultan, who after reigning 47 years, was taken up to heaven in a flash of lightning, since which period the family has given a succession of Sultans to *Coti*."

These facts the Sultan and his priests say are known throughout the *world*, and acknowledged by all Rajahs in India who formerly paid tribute. He has no superior or equal except the Sultan of Turkey!

Such is the account of the present Sultan of *Coti*, and throughout the country it is believed; indeed to express the least doubt on the subject would cost the unbeliever his head; but notwithstanding the greatness and sanctity of this family, they cannot produce any proof of one inhabitant having existed in *Coti* one hundred years since, without an appeal to the Bugis annals. Of course, there can be no doubt on the subject; but it cannot be discovered, either from the remains or monuments of the dead, or the manuscript writings of any inhabitant of *Coti*. The Sultan has not in his possession a document written one hundred years ago, excepting copies of the koran; these are principally written in Arabic characters, but there are some in the Bugis, all of which came from *Macassar*. I believe it will be found that no European writers on Malayan countries have been enabled to carry their researches further back than 300 or 350 years, with any degree of truth or combination of circumstances; beyond that period they have taken their facts from the oral traditions of the countries, to which they have put their own data, and made their works, (at least the historical parts of them,) as entertaining and quite as true as the Arabian nights, the Seven Champions of Christendom, or any other "true history." Even if written documents were found treating upon the historical events, they can be but little relied on. Many reasons may be given for such disbelief; I will, however, only mention one, as I consider it conclusive on the subject, and I am, moreover, induced to notice it from the circumstance of the agreement of the most modern writers on the subject, particularly Mr. MARSDEN and Sir T. S. RAFFLES: it is that every Rajah or reigning prince, from time immemorial, invariably kept his own historian, purposely to hand down to posterity the power and great virtues of the reigning monarch. The history of eastern nations presents us with a series of continual struggles of the late crowned Rajah, to exalt his own exploits above those of his predecessor.

From the earliest times we find this to be the custom amongst all powerful nations of the east. HERODOTUS the Greek historian, in his account of XERXES'S invasion of Greece, mentions the names of two characters of this description, METON and CRATINUS, who were put to death by the tyrant for presuming to notice his reverse during that attempt. A third, we are told, poisoned himself in despair of writing any thing to please him, after his defeated army had repassed the Hellespont. DEMOSTHENES, in one of his orations, prophesies the downfal of DARIUS for putting to a cruel death several of his historians, for no other fault than acknowledging the defeat of the Persian army by ALEXANDER. We might travel further west, and find, about the same period, parallel cases in the several parts of Greece, particularly in Macedon, but there can be no necessity in attempting to prove that which may be read in every schoolbook; suffice it to say such is the practice in Persia at the present time, likewise in most parts of the east, which accounts for that want of a chain of historical events, connected together, which can be, in any manner, traced.

This digression from my subject may be considered foreign to it; but if what I have advanced be considered probable, I stand excused, considering it pertinent and strictly applicable, inasmuch as it will bear me out in the assertion that until the establishment of Mahometanism in this part of the world, (which was not until the end of the twelfth century, or the

beginning of the thirteenth,) history and even chronology were extremely imperfect, I might almost say fabulous, and until the names of better historians can be brought forward than those obsequious slaves who formerly attended and do yet attend upon the steps of their imperious despots, most people will, I fancy, remain of that opinion. The historical parts relating to Sumatra and Java are treated by the writers already named in a very plausible manner; their ingenuity may be continually discovered in the fruitless attempts at filling up chasms of events, and reconciling absurdities and inconsistencies, with probability; and no doubt, these celebrated writers were actuated by the laudable motive of entertaining their readers: this is all very good, but they should not dignify such lucubrations with the title of "History."

Mr. CRAWFURD mentions that during his services in Java one of the attendants at the Court of *Djojucarta* shewed him an account of all particulars during the reign of the present Sultan, in which his own name was particularly noticed, together with all the transactions in which he was personally concerned, whilst filling the important situation of Political Resident of that part of Java. The writer of this remembers, when Mr Raffles was to the eastward of that Island in 1815, similar intimations were given to this governor of the prominent character he bore during that epocha, and there can be little doubt, any civil or military officer of the Netherlands Government could, at this moment, see his own name blazoned forth in the "true history of Java," if he would only behave liberally to the royal historian at the court of the Emperor. If any man doubt for a moment that the rebel *Diepo Nigoro* has his particular historian, who exalts his conduct in the present struggle, beyond the praises of Alexander the Great or Charlemaigne, let him remain in future ignorance, nor ever read that part of Javanese history I have noticed, and which it is to be hoped, will be published, as a just punishment for his incredulity.

Many of the aforesaid remarks will apply to Sumatra, and most parts of Asia, where similar false accounts have been fabricated and sent forth in the same manner. Until the doctrines of Mahomet were promulgated and became the established religion in various parts, and the arrival of Europeans in these seas, (events which occurred within a century of each other,) no correct account of transactions have been kept, and all which concern the historical parts of the Malayan Peninsula and Archipelago are more or less clouded in darkness as the precepts of mahometanism or christianity have been spread.

One instance is as good as any; parts of the Celebes and Sumatra are by far the most enlightened countries in the Archipelago; these islands were amongst the first visited by the propagators of the koran, whilst the interior of Borneo, where they have seldom visited, and Papua, where they never established themselves, are inhabited by races of men as wild and ignorant as the Hottentots of Africa.

All those islands which have been visited and become much known to Europeans, seem to indicate that at some remote period they were colonies of Hindustan, or torn from it by some dreadful convulsion of nature. The former would appear the more probable conclusion for many reasons, one of which stands prominent: had the continent of India been so torn by an earthquake as to distribute part of her terra firma in such separate parcels, as these islands, it is very unlikely that Hindoo buildings of a delicate architecture should have so withstood the shock as to present themselves in a proforma position; it is true their materials are of a nature sufficiently durable, but that has nothing to do with the foundation. History takes no notice of such a visitation, which could not have passed unnoticed. On the contrary, it may be advanced that the Hindoos were never a converting people; the tenets of their religion, unlike those of the christian or mahometan, hold out no merit to the work of conversion; besides it is so much against the religious opinions of the disciples of Brahma to leave their country, that we are informed no good Hindoo ever did so, neither can force or persuasion prevail on them to take a step which would most assuredly be followed by the greatest of all visitations— he loss of caste. As late ago, as our 1772, the Bengal sepoys refused to follow their favorite General, Sir EYRE COOTE, to Madras, unless he marched overland, it being against their religion to sail beyond the waters of the Ganges; they were at length prevailed upon by the high priests or brahmins in the British interest, who expounded the laws of Brahma in a manner which obviated their objections. The same unwillingness occurred in fitting out the expedition which captured the Isle of France, about twenty years since It was met as formerly and with similar success. A very remarkable instance of the tenacity of these people against leaving their country may be found during the impeachment of WARREN HASTINGS Esqre., the former Governor General. At

the desire of the managers for the prosecution, the whole influence and authority of the British government were exerted to induce the subandhar of the Princess MUNNEY BEGUM personally to appear as evidence in favor of his royal mistress; but in vain; the princess herself wrote to England that even were the subandhar to undertake the voyage, his evidence would be unworthy of belief, as, by such an act, he must lose his caste, and thus destroy the integrity of his character.

As we appear to remain in total darkness on the subject of these remains of Hindoo architecture, found in many of the larger islands of this archipelago; as history and even tradition written or oral, throw not the slightest light upon the subject, and as we may suppose these monuments of antiquity were not planted by enchantment, although credulity might almost be led to suppose they were, we must endeavour as well as we can, to eke out causes by their effects.

It is useless to indulge in the speculative supposition of these islands being formerly joined to that part of Asia denominated Hindustan; many of them are much nearer China. We must be satisfied to consider them as islands from the beginning, and in an attempt to throw some light upon the probable epoch when these architectural remains were erected, and by whom, we must endeavour to solve the question,—from what part or parts of Asia were these islands first inhabited?

It appears to me, if we could pass over the fact of these buildings being found on various islands of this archipelago, and the undoubted truth of their being of Hindoo origin, there is nothing to be discovered which could lead to the supposition that any of these islands were inhabited or even visited by Hindoos. The custom of the people of *Bali* in burning their dead is by no means conclusive on the subject; it was the practice of the ancients, and in many of the islands of the Pacific the natives yet dispose of the dead in a similar manner. They have however, in *Bali*, still preserved many of the Hindoo customs, which elsewhere are not seen, such as the widows and favorite women of the chiefs burning themselves in a funeral pile with the corpse. Some writers have fancied there is a likeness between the natives of Bengal and the Javanese; there may be some general resemblance, but I think not sufficient to attract the notice of a physiognomist. In the language, there is no similarity whatever. It is perhaps impossible for two people to differ more widely than these two; taking them generally, their habits, dispositions, and manners are as much at variance as their language.

The opinion of many of the more enlightened Bugis with whom I have conversed, is that most of these islands were originally stocked from Siam and Camboja. The latter is a large country laying to the westward of China, which the Siamese say formerly belonged to them. The lapguage of the Cochin-Chinese bears a greater affinity to that of the *Bugis*, than does the former to that of *Tonkin*, and the Siamese have no difficulty in understanding them; indeed they say the language of Cochin-China is nothing more than a different dialect of their own, corrupted by the southern Chinese.

There has been from time immemorial, very extensive trade carried on between *Siam*, *Cochin-China* and the numerous tribes inhabiting the large tract of country about the mouths of the *Camboja* river; likewise with the *Sooloo* islands, including the northern part of *Borneo*, and perhaps of the *Celebes*. This communication yet continues; it is more or less direct, and hundreds of prows annually sail from the continent, to the numerous islands amongst the *Sooloo* seas, continually pouring into them its superabundant population, which must, per-force, travel westerly. This is merely a continuation of the former system of emigration, which originally, doubtlessly, stocked most of these islands with human beings. *Megidano* is one of the first islands in the eastern seas; it contains as many square miles as the largest of the Philippines, and is peopled throughout with an industrious race of men from the shores of *Camboja*. At the end of the sixteenth century, when the Spaniards were in the zenith of power, they could make no impression on *Megidano*; they made two attempts to subdue that island, and were repulsed both times. A third expedition under the command of Don PEDRO DE ACUNHA, did not land, being intimidated by the immense population which appeared on the shores, armed to receive them. On their return to *Manila*, they took possession of some smaller islands which were afterwards abandoned. ALBEQUERQUE, the Spanish Admiral, mentions, that about the year 1600, the Emperor of Cochin-China and the Rajahs of the eastern parts of *Camboja*, sent Ambassadors to *Megidano* begging assistance against the king of Siam; which request was refused, as the Rajah of *Megidano* had himself no cause of quarrel with *Siam*, besides some of his family were related to the king. Upon this, the Ambassador proceeded to *Manila* for assist-

ance, but the Spaniards had their hands full of other more important matters. The islands of the *Sooloo* Archipelago are but little known except by native traders who describe the larger ones to be cultivated throughout. I have been informed by anakodahs of the Cochin-Chinese prows (one of whom was a rajah) who had frequently been on those voyages, that the greater part of *Megidano*, and others of these islands, have a population as dense as that of any part of northern China ; and that from Cochin-China alone, including native states about the mouth of the *Camboja* river, there sail annually, 140 prows, large and small, direct to *Megidano*. These prows carry from fifty to five hundred passengers, who emigrate thither, and who upon their arrival, sell their services for a certain period to pay their passage over. One of the principal Chiefs whose territories are situate on the great western *Camboja* river, imposes a tax of five dollars on each emigrant, which sum is advanced by the anakodah of the prow, and placed with the passage-money to account, to be repaid on finding him a master amongst the islands. The same rajah told me, the yearly amount of prows sailing from the same parts to the island of *Palawan* were not less than eighty of considerable size. *Palawan* is governed by a rajah related to the Emperor of Cochin-China. Here as well as in *Megidano*, there are gold and tin mines ; and edible bird's nests of the black kind have lately been discovered on the former island. The population of *Palawan* is even greater than that of *Megidano*, and the arrival of from seven to ten thousand men annually compel a part to spread themselves over the further islands.

The extreme northern part of *Borneo* presents a similar density of population from the same sources. At a moderate calculation, there are not less than 500 prows sailing annually from the coast of *Camboja*, to these islands, (without calculating those from Siam, who merely trade, the laws forbidding emigration,) and if we give the small number of 50 to each prow, we shall find 25,000 natives of that territory landing on these islands in the short space of one year; but in lieu of that number, the probability is that the average would be at least 100, as few of the small prows take less than 40 men, and many of the larger kind, 350 and 400. Their traffic was equally great on the arrival of MAGELLAN, and doubtless, for centuries before his appearance in those seas. We may look in vain for any such extent of emigration from any other part of that continent, or indeed at all, if we except China ; but the Chinese do not trade directly with the *Sooloo* islands, merely sending yearly to *Manila*, a junk or two. The Siamese were formerly in the habit of sending, each year, a few prows to *Johore* and *Acheen* for the purpose of trade ; this was never considerable ; for the last 25 years, the number of prows seldom exceeded three ; emigration was and is strictly prohibited.

The *Sooloo* Archipelago has not only resisted with success, the invasions of the christians, but the followers of Mahomet have made but little progress. They are only found upon the coasts of many of these islands ; on the coast of *Camboja*, they have made no impression.

I have already remarked that there is a great resemblance between the natives of *Camboja* and the inhabitants of most of these islands ; in appearance, manners, and dispositions, this is obvious. The Cochin-Chinese language is generally spoken throughout *Palawan* and *Megidano ;* further westward, and particularly about the coasts of the more westerly islands, it is mixed with the Bugis. On the northern points of *Borneo*, the Cambojan language is as much spoken as any other ; many mahometans, whom I saw at *Coti*, who came from *Browe*, could speak it fluently. There can be little doubt that the Bugis language is distinct from all others ; it is however, only spoken in its purity in *Boni* and *Waagoo*. None of the other languages are perfect ; the natives of Borneo, born about the coasts, speak a corrupted compound of Bugis, Malay and Diak. Many, (not these several languages,) have been formed from the commixture with those northern and eastern pilgrims; such as those in use among the Diaks of *Borneo*, who have amongst them innumerable languages ; those of the *Celebes*, who have probably as many ; the Javanese, and the orang benoa of *Sumatra*. As for the Arabic language, it doubtlessly more or less pervades them all ; it, however, seems to be no otherwise incorporated into any one than to express the signification of particular words, regarding religion, brought to their notice by the first propagation of the koran, for which they could have no name ; therefore we find such words as God, Devil, Prophet, &c. pure Arabic.

Of *Papua* or *New Guinea*, little is known ; but we have the concurrent testimony of those who have visited the coasts, particularly that to the westward, to prove that the Bugis can make himself understood amongst the natives. It is somewhat remarkable, what a similarity prevails between the Malayan language, and that of many of the islands scattered over the Pacific Ocean; the idiom is alike, and many of the words the same. That those distant islands

should have been visited by prows from any part of the Archipelago, and *vice versa*, a person would almost think impossible, and yet from their respective languages, and many of their customs, we might almost conclude they were originally from one common stock.

Amongst the various races of people inhabiting these islands, the Diaks are the most peculiar, and certainly by far the most numerous of the whole. They cover the whole island of *Borneo*, with a considerable portion of the *Celebes*. Their tribes are innumerable; *Borneo* is in every part intersected with rivers of greater or less magnitude; every river has a distinct people who will associate with no other, but wage continual war with all. The entrances of the rivers are the scenes of unceasing warfare, as they always lay in ambush about those parts in hopes of surprising individuals, who may be found fishing, or straying too far from their campongs, where they may be cut off without notice or alarm. Every river has a rajah, and a large one several. In particular parts, many of these chiefs are united under one great rajah, the better to consolidate their strength and ensure protection by mutual support.

The rajah of the country of *Wuagoo* has seventy chiefs under him, all of whom are likewise called rajahs. SEDGEN has fifty, whilst SELGIE has more than one hundred and forty. The latter chief is by far the most powerful in this part of *Borneo*; he possesses an immense extent of country, over which he exercises the most despotic control. SELGIE calculates the people under his sway, at 150,000; they are under strict command, and divided into three classes, one of which does nothing but fabricate arms, such as mandows, spears, shields, sumpits and darts; another attends to the culture of paddy, making war-dresses, and articles of ornament for the women: the third is composed of the finest men selected for war; these are marked in a particular manner, and have great privileges over all other. SELGIE has seventeen wives, all daughters of rajahs; he is himself one of the largest and best proportioned men I ever saw: his age may be 53. He has several sons, all rajahs; they appear made for war, and delight in nothing else. The ravages of these people are dreadful: in August 1828, SELGIE returned to *Marpow* from an excursion; his party had been three months absent, during which time, besides detached huts, he had destroyed seventeen campongs with the whole of the men and old women; the young women and children were brought prisoners. The former amounted to 113, and the latter about 200. He had with him forty war-boats, or large canoes, none less in length than 95 feet; the average length might be 95. The one set apart for SELGIE and his women was 105 feet. I was nearly two months in this boat, in various directions with SELGIE who was in search of heads. These boats are made from one tree, a kind of beech, which grows to an amazing height, on the lower branches of which the best honey is gathered. In each, there are from 45 to 80 men, all of whom use the paddle. The swiftness of these canoes is incredible; when going down the river with the stream, they have the appearance of a bird skimming along the water. The sensation is such that I invariably fell asleep. When SELGIE gave orders for the people to exert themselves, I cannot exactly calculate the rate of going, but I have heard SELGIE offer to bet the Sultan of *Coti* one hundred piculs of bees' wax, that he would go from *Marpow* to *Tongarron* in 24 hours; the distance is not less perhaps than 400 paals. It must be recollected, however, there is a rapid stream in his favor, of perhaps 6 knots an hour. I have reason to believe the offer of this bet was to get me to go halves with the Sultan, and thus lose some money. This was my opinion at the moment, so I refused; some days after this conversation, SELGIE'S eldest son remarked to me that any Diak war-boat could go the distance in 20 hours, which his father, as well as the Sultan, well knew.

The perseverance of the Diaks during an expedition is wonderful; they generally get information of distant campongs from the women taken prisoners, (no man ever escapes to tell the tale,) who soon become attached to the conquerors. In proceeding towards a distant campong, the canoes are never seen on the river during the day-time; they invariably commence their journey about half an hour after dark, when they pull rapidly and silently up the river close to the bank. One boat keeps immediately behind another, and the handles of the paddles are covered with the soft bark of a tree, so that no noise whatever is made. (In SELGIE'S last expedition, he was forty-one days before a campong was surprised, although several canoes were cut off in the river owing to the superior swiftness of SELGIE'S boats.) After paddling all night without intermission, about half an hour before day-light, they pull the boats up upon the banks, amongst the jungle and thick trees, so that from the river, it is impossible to see them, or discover the least track of their route. Here they sleep, and feed upon monkeys snakes or any other animals they can reach with their sumpits; wild hogs are their favorite food, and they are in abundance;—if these fail them, the young sprouts of certain trees and

wild fruit will answer the purpose; nothing comes amiss to the stomach of a Diak. Should the Rajah want flesh, and it cannot be procured with the sumpit, one of the followers is killed, which not only provides them with a good meal, but a head to boot. Whilst part of the people are employed in hunting and cooking, others ascend the highest trees to examine the country, and observe if a campong or hut be near, which they discover by the smoke. Should it be a solitary hut, they surround it, and take care no one escapes; but should it be a considerable campong, they go much more warily to work. When the boats have arrived within about a mile of a campong, they prepare themselves; about one-third of the party are sent forward who penetrate the thickest part of the jungle, arriving at night near the houses; these are surrounded; men are placed in every foot-path leading from them, for the purpose of intercepting all who may attempt to escape into the woods. In the mean time, the remainder of the party in their boats, arrive about an hour before day-light in perfect silence within a few hundred yards of the campong, when most of the warriors put on their fighting dress, and creep slowly forwards, leaving a few men in each boat, likewise about a dozen with the women who remain in the jungle. About twenty minutes before day-break, they commence operations by throwing upon the attaps of the huts lighted fire-balls made of the dry bark of trees and damar, which immediately involves the whole in flames. The war-cry is then raised, and the work of murder commences; the male inhabitants are speared or more commonly cut down with the mandow, as they descend the ladders of their dwellings in attempting to escape the flames, which SELGIE remarked to me, give just sufficient light to distinguish a man from a woman. The women and children endeavouring to gain the jungle by the well-known paths, find them already occupied by an enemy, from whom there is no escaping; they, of course, surrender themselves, and are collected together, with the assistance of day-light, which they manage so as to be certain of at this moment. When the signal is first given, (always by the Rajah) the people in the boats pull rapidly; some are placed up the river above the campong, some below it, and the remainder abreast of the huts, so that should any of the unfortunate beings gain their sampans, they are certainly cut off in the water. Their principal object is to prevent a single person escaping to give intelligence to other campongs, and to arrange the time so that the day shall dawn about ten or fifteen minutes after the slaughter begins, which enables them to take their stations, and fire the houses in the midst of darkness, and afterwards affords sufficient light to secure their prey. On moonlight nights they keep concealed in the jungle, only acting in the dark. Heavy rains just previous to the attack are not considered favourable, as the attaps will not burn readily, but a smart shower at the moment is always wished for, the noise preventing their operations being heard, besides they imagine people sleep soundest about an hour before day-light, particularly if it rains. After the women and children are collected, the old women are killed, and the heads of the men cut off; the brains are taken out, and held over a fire, for the purpose of smoking and preserving them. The women and children are only secondary considerations; the heads are what they want, and there is no suffering, a Diak will not cheerfully endure to be recompenced by a single one. From the last excursion SELGIE'S people brought with them 700 heads—of which 250 fell to the share of himself and sons. The women and children all belonged to him in the first instance. Many of SELGIE'S tribe are cannibals: some will not eat human flesh, whilst others refuse to do so except on particular occasions, as a birth, a marriage, or funeral. All these events are celebrated with fresh heads. Nothing can be done without them. All kinds of sickness, particularly the small pox, are supposed to be under the influence of an evil spirit which nothing can so well propitiate as a head. A Diak who has taken many heads, may be immediately known from others who have not been so fortunate: he comes into the presence of the Rajah and takes his station without hesitation, whilst an inferior person is glad to creep into any corner to escape notice.

Further towards the north of *Borneo*, are to found men living absolutely in a state of nature, who neither cultivate the ground, nor live in huts; who neither eat rice nor tsalt, and who do not associate with each other, but rove about some woods, like wild beasts; he sexes meet in the jungle or the man carries away a woman from some campong. When the children are old enough to shift for themselves, they usually separate, neither one afterwards thinking of the other; at night they sleep under some large tree, the branches of which hang low. On these they fasten the children in a kind of swing; around the tree they make a fire to keep off the wild beasts and snakes,—they cover themselves with a piece of bark, and in this also they wrap their children; it is soft and warm but will not keep out the rain. These poor creatures are

looked on and treated by the other Diaks as wild beasts; hunting parties of 25 and 30 go out and amuse themselves with shooting at the children in the trees with the sumpit, the same as monkeys, from which they are not easily distinguished. The men taken in these excursions are invariably killed, the women commonly spared, if they are young. It is somewhat remarkable that the children of these wild Diaks cannot be sufficiently tamed to be entrusted with their liberty. SELGIE told me, he never recollected an instance when they did not escape to the jungle the very first opportunity, notwitstanding many of them had been treated kindly for years; the consequence is, all the chiefs who call themselves civilized, no sooner take them, but they cut off a foot, sticking the stump in a bamboo of molten damar; their escape is thus prevented and their services in paddling canoes retained. An old Diak loves to dwell upon his success on these hunting excursions, and the terror of the women and children when taken affords a fruitful theme of amusement at all their meetings. The Diaks are the finest formed men that can be conceived, perfect models for the sculptor; the warrior tribes are remarkably large men; their activity is wonderful; they will leap and catch the lower branch of a high tree, climbing to the top, hand over hand, without apparent exertion; in descending they throw themselves into the midst of the branches and gain the ground immediately, without injury. They swim the most rapid rivers without fear of the numerous alligators, which they will attack and destroy in the water with their mandows; they possess the power of remaining a long time under water. A favorite plan with them is to surprise people in boats during the night; they drop gently into the river about one hundred yards above the boat and glide down with the current under water, when they suddenly appear and seize some poor wretch by his long hair; his head is struck off by a blow or two with the mandow and carried on shore. On going to war, they wear defensive armour made of the skins of wild beasts, generally of the black bear, which are very numerous; but the Rajah will have a tiger skin. They are put over the head and effectually cover the breast and back leaving the arms naked; this, with a helmet curiously wrought with bamboo is proof against the sumpit, spear or mandow; each man carries a shield, which is made of a light hard wood covered with skin; it is made suitable to the height of the wearer, generally about five feet in length and two in breadth turned inwards and held by the left hand. When the chiefs engage hand to hand, they, after the spirit of chivalry, throw these away; after skirmishing with the sumpit they usually come to close quarters; what the chiefs principally aim at is a surprise, but the adverse party knowing his enemy is in the field, always provides against this, and as one side is as cunning as the other, they usually in the end came to open blows; their personal combats are dreadful; they have no idea of fear and fight until they are cut to pieces; indeed their astonishing strength, agility and peculiar method of taking care of themselves, are such that I am firmly of opinion a good European swordsman would stand little chance with them, man to man, as, except at their arms, he could not get a cut at them. The temper of the steel with which they make their mandows is such that a powerful man is not required to cut through a mus et barrel at a single blow. The Diaks, in fighting, always strike and seldom thrust: indeed their mandow is not calculated for it, but the small sword would be useless against them as it would not penetrate the thick skin in front, over which, about the navel, they attach a very large shell. I have been present when SELGIE has taken two campongs; the inhabitants were surprised and the fighting consequently all on one side, but in a few instances resistance was offered. I did not observe them attempt to parry the blows with their weapon, these were either taken on the shield or contrived to meet the bamboo cap; as the men of the campong, had no time given them to cover themselves, they were easily cut down; the noise is terrific during the massacre, (for it can be called nothing else,) and joined in by all the Rajah's women who accompany him in his excursions. I was always stationed amongst them far from any danger. What these people mostly dread is the musket; it is inconceivable what a sensation of fear comes over the bravest of the Diaks when they have an idea a few muskets may possibly be brought against them; no inducement will prevail on them, however numerous, to go forward; hence the Bugis, with a handful of men, act towards them as they think proper; making them deliver over not only the produce of the country for a trifling exchange, but a certain number of their children yearly, whom they sell as slaves. SELGIE can bring at least 12,000 fighting men and yet the Bugis with 50 muskets and a few boat-swivels will not hesitate to meet them; the fact is, they no sooner hear the report of a gun than they run deep into the jungle; if they are in boats they leap into the water and after gaining the shore, never stop until they are out of hearing of the report. The most sensible of the Diaks have a superstitious idea of fire-arms; each man, on hearing the report, fancies the

ball is making directly towards himself, he therefore runs never thinking himself safe as long as he hears the explosion of gunpowder: thus, a man hearing the report of a swivel five miles off, will still continue at full speed, with the same trepidation as at first. They have not the least conception of the range of gun-barrels. I have been frequently out with SELGIE and other chiefs, shooting monkeys, birds, &c. and offended them in refusing to fire at large birds at the distance of a mile or more ; they invariably put such refusal down to ill-nature on my part. Again, firing at an object, they cannot credit it is missed, although they see the bird fly away, but consider that the shot is yet pursuing and it must fall at last. The Bugis take great care to confirm them in their dread of fire-arms ; however, time will wear this off; indeed SELGIE and other rajahs talked very cavalierly of getting muskets and meeting the Bugis on their own terms.

Having but briefly mentioned the excellence of the iron and steel of those people, it may not be amiss to say something more on the subject, it being but little understood, how much the Diaks excel in those articles. The iron found all along the coast of Borneo is of a very superior quality, which every person must know who has visited *Pontiana* or *Sambas*. At *Banjermassin*, it is however much superior ; they have a method of working it which precludes all necessity of purchasing European steel (excepting for cock-spurs which they prefer when made from a razor.) But the best iron of *Banjermassin* is not equal to that worked by the rudest Diak ; all the best kris blades of the Bugis rajahs and chiefs are manufactured by them, and it is a most singular but an undoubted fact, that the farther a person advances into the country the better will be found all instruments of iron. SELGIE'S country is superior in this respect to all those nearer the coast ; his gollocks, spears, and kris blades are in great demand. I have counted forty-nine forges at work merely in the campong of *Marpow*, but the mandows and spears which he uses himself and gives to his favorite warriors are obtained further north Those men whom I have noticed living in a state of nature, building no habitations of any kind, and eating nothing but fruits, snakes and monkeys, yet procure this excellent iron and make blades, sought after by every Diak who in their hunting excursions have in view the possession of the poor creature's spear or mandow as much as his head, improbable as it may sound. Instruments made of it will cut through over-wrought iron and common steel with ease. I have had several penknives shaved to pieces with them by way of experiment, and one day, having bet a wager of a few rupees with SELGIE that he would not cut through an old musket-barrel, he, without hesitation, put the end of it upon a block of wood and chopped it to pieces without in the least turning the edge of the mandow. This favorite weapon he presented to me as the greatest and most acceptable present he could bestow, and I gave it to the Governor of Makassar, who, I believe, sent it to His Excellency the Commissioner of Java, I may here mention another proof of their power. In the Sultan of Coti's house I have myself seen three muskets formerly belonging to Major Mullen's detachment, which were each cut more than half through, in several places, by the mandows of the party which destroyed them. I once mentioned this circumstance to SELGIE: he laughed and assured me the mandows used on that occasion were not made of his iron, otherwise the barrels would have been cut through at every stroke. Of the sumpits, I need not say much ; they are similar to those used in various parts of the island. The darts are of various sorts ; those used in war are poisoned by dipping them into a liquid taken from a young tree called by the Diaks *upo ;* the effects are almost immediately fatal. I have been in SELGIE'S boat when a man was struck in the hand ; the poison ran so quickly up the arm, that by the time the elbow was green, the wrist was black ; the man died in about four minutes : the smell from the hand was very offensive. Each man carries about with him a small box of lime juice ; by dipping the dart into this immediately before they put it into the sumpit, the poison becomes active, in which state they blow it. They will strike an object at 40 yards and will kill a monkey or bird at that distance ; when the darts are poisoned, they will throw them 60 yards, as in war, or at some large ferocious animal which they seldom eat ; however, I have seen them eat of the flesh notwithstanding it was killed with a poisoned dart ; in such cases they boil it before roasting, which they say, extracts the poison.

During my detention in Borneo, altogether nearly fifteen months, I experienced much attention and kindness from many Diaks chiefs particularly from SELGIE with whom I was some months. Indeed, I was alway of opinion that I was unsafe elsewhere. Being the first and only European he had ever seen, we no sooner met, than I informed him through an interpreter (as he could not speak a word of Malay) that I had come on the part of the Europeans to make friends with him ; and trusted he and his people would do me no harm. (I mentioned this at once, fearing the Sultan of *Coti* had given some previous orders by no means favourable towards

me.) SELGIE replied that he was incapable of such an act, but for our future good understanding, it was proper that all his followers should know on what footing we were, and therefore requested I would make *sobat* with him ; on my gladly consenting, he went in person and stuck a spear into the ground above his father's grave. This being the signal for a general assembly, each of the chiefs sent a person to know the Rajah's pleasure; it was that every warrior should assemble around the grave by 12 o'clock the next day. Some thousands were present : a platform of bamboo was raised about twelve feet above the grave, and on this SELGIE and I mounted, accompanied by an Agi, his high priest. After some previous ceremony, the Agi produced a small silver cup which might hold about two wine glasses, and then with a piece of bamboo made very sharp, drew blood from the Rajah's right arm ; the blood ran into the cup until it was nearly full ; he then produced another cup of a similar size and made an incision in my arm a little above the elbow and filled it with blood. The two cups were then held up to the view of the surrounding people who greeted them with loud cheers. The Agi now presented me with the cup of SELGIE'S blood, giving him the other one with mine ; upon a signal, we drank off the contents amidst the deafening noise of the warriors and others. The Agi then half filled one of the cups again from SELGIE'S arm, and with my blood made it a bumper; this was stirred up with a piece of bamboo and given to SELGIE who drank about half ; he then presented the cup to me when I finished it. The noise was tremendous ; thus the great Rajah SELGIE and I become brothers. After this ceremony I was perfectly safe and from that moment felt myself so during my stay amongst his people. Drinking the blood, however, made me ill for two days as I could not throw it off my stomach. The Rajah took his share with great gusto as this is considered one of the greatest ceremonies, particularly on this occasion, between the great Rajah and the first European who had been seen in his country. Great festivities followed and abundance of heads were brought in, for nothing can be done without them. Three days and nights all ranks of people danced round these heads after being, as usual, smoked and the brains taken out, drinking a kind of toddy which soon intoxicates them ; they are then taken care of by the women who do not drink; at least, I never observed them.

No Diak can marry the daughter of a warrior unless he has previously taken a head or two. Neither will one of the great chiefs allow a marriage with one of inferior celebrity. On a proposition being made to wed, it is referred to the Rajah who calls before him the lover and the father of the girl ; the former is asked what number of heads he has taken, the same question is put to the father; if the old man can produce ten heads the young one must have five, as according to SELGIE'S reasoning, by the time the lover is of the age of the girl's father he will, in all probability, be likewise in possession of ten. Should the young man not have so many, he must get them before he presumes to take another step in the affair. He then musters a few friends, takes a swift-boat and leaves that part of the country and will not return until the number is complete ; (they are often absent three months.) To return unsuccessful would expose him to ridicule ever after. Women's heads will not answer the purpose ; they however, generally bring back with them a few young ones and some children as an acceptable present to the Rajah and to attend the wife. They wend their way to some unprotected campong taking advantage of the absence of the young men and kill the old ones or some poor straggling fishermen ; it makes no difference whose heads they may be, so they do not belong to the Rajah's friendly campongs. Having procured the desired number, they paddle quickly back and send immediate intelligence to the intended bride, who puts on all her ornaments and with her father and friends advance to meet the heads ; these are in the first instance always placed on a spot about half way between the dwelling places of the two partners and near the Rajah's house. On the approach of the young lady, the lover meets her with a head in each hand, holding them by the hair ; these she takes from him and he get others if there are sufficient, if not, they have one each. They then dance round each other with most extravagant gestures amidst the applause of the Rajah and his people. After this ceremony, the Rajah or some warrior of his family must examine the heads to see that they are fresh ; for this purpose they are not allowed to be smoked or the brains taken out, which destroys the smell, but must bring them in a green state in full proof that old heads have not been borrowed for the occasion ; (I have frequently seen heads which have been cut off a week or more the smell of which to me was intolerable, but to them nowise offensive.) The family honor of the bride's father being now satisfied, he asks the Rajah's consent which is always given (the young women and children taken during the expedition are at this interview presented.) A feast, is now prepared, at which the young couple eat together; this being concluded, what clothes either of them may have on are taken

off, and sitting on the ground naked the old women throw over them handfuls of paddy, repeating a kind of prayer that the young couple may prove as fruitful as that grain. At night, the bride attends her husband to his dwelling.

The burials of these people are not less singular than their marriages. The old men have every attention paid them whilst living, and indeed long after they die. On the death of a chief or rajah, they dress him out in his war habiliments, and carry him to the grave, (after keeping him in the house a certain time according to his rank, seldom longer than ten days) on a large litter enveloped in white cloth; they lay the body in a place prepared, without a coffin; by his side are deposited his arms, particularly his shield, spear, and mandow; a quantity of rice and fruit are likewise enclosed with other such articles of food as the deceased was most partial to; the grave is then closed up; a high mound raised; and this is encircled with strong bamboo, upon which fresh heads are placed as the most acceptable offering to the deceased. No warrior would dare to appear before the family of the chief without at least one head as a consolatory present; these are thickly studded round the grave and occasionally renewed during the first year or two, the old ones being considered the property of the succeeding chief.

I cannot ascertain that the Diaks have any religion amongst themselves or entertain an idea of future rewards and punishments. None of the Bugis or Agis, were able to give me further information on this subject than what I was myself enabled to pick up from personal observation and which was very little; they have no fear whatever of dying, either in battle or otherwise, provided they are in no danger of losing their heads; they have, however, the utmost dread of such an event occurring, which they conceive the greatest and indeed only misfortune that can befal them, and this feeling seems to emanate from their knowledge of the triumph their enemies enjoy in getting possession of this greatest of all treasures; for all Diaks in every part of *Borneo*, likewise in *Celebes*, have the same predilection for cutting off the heads of their enemies, and every stranger is regarded as an enemy. It is, however, most certain they have some idea of a future state: this not only appears in their burials but on other occasions. There is a certain bird of which they stand in great awe; when they hear the note of this bird no inducement can urge them further on the same line of road. I have frequently been out shooting when we heard it; on such occasions they invariably would stop and tremble violently and immediately take another road. I never could obtain a sight of this bird of ill omen, for such it is considered; if I attempted to advance a single step nearer the sound, they took hold of me and pointing towards the sky with gestures of apprehension, forced me a contrary way. The notes are very similar to those of our blackbird, equally sweet, but much stronger. Notwithstanding my becoming brother of the great Rajah, I always entertained an impression that I should be murdered, if by mischance, I happened to shoot one of these birds. It is evidently a superstitious feeling, this particular bird being looked upon as an evil genius.

The Diaks do not circumcise, neither can any inducement urge them to submit to the operation. They, however, have a custom amongst themselves, a strange one, and which would appear almost incredible: it is passing wire through the gland of the virile member, in a crosswise direction; nearly the whole of SELGIE'S people were thus perforated. This is not only a most painful but dangerous operation; and ruins at least one third of the entire male population. The wire is brought to a point and forcibly pushed through the centre, cut off and again crossed; the four points are then filed within about an eight of an inch from the skin. There are certain people who perform this operation on boys, arriving near the age of puberty. The rajahs use gold pins; the chiefs and others who can afford it silver, but seven tenths of the whole number use copper. I have seen many too poor even to purchase a piece of this metal; such use bamboo. The pain is such that many are affected and die of locked jaw; when this does not occur, those who use gold or silver suffer no future inconvenience, whilst many of the others die of mortification taking place. As the Diaks consider this mark of distinction no small honor, they make no ceremony of exposing themselves. It is shocking to observe the state to which many of them are reduced in consequence of this singular and absurd custom; when copper wire is introduced, the perforation is made with a kind of needle; but copper being immediately used causes inflammation which in time destroys numbers. No woman of rank of SELGIE'S country would condescend to marry a man who was not thus decorated.

The warrior can take any inferior man's wife at pleasure, and is thanked for so doing A chief who has twenty heads in his possession, will do the same with another who may have only ten, and upwards to the Rajah's family, who can take any woman at pleasure. The more

heads a man has the braver he is considered, and as the children belong to the husband, he is happy in his future prospects. On the contrary, a man of inferior note, to think of the wife of a superior is entirely out of the question, perhaps such a circumstance never occurred. The women when young are handsome, some of SELGIE'S wives particularly so, and fair; such as come from the mountains have a colour in their cheeks. They have a method of bandaging the body when young, particularly the hips, which preserves them plump even to old age; the legs and thighs are always tattooed, more or less according to their rank. The higher dames are not a little proud in shewing these distinguishing marks of quality to a stranger contrasting them with those of their attendants. The Bugis are a villainous set; I knew many of them who married in different Diak countries, merely for the purpose of getting children and selling them to their countrymen and others as slaves; this they do without fear of being discovered by these simple people.

On the whole, I consider the Diaks have many good qualities, amongst some frightful ones; the latter are, however, the vices of barbarians who know no better and who have seen nothing else. The most odious feature in their character is the propensity for cutting off heads, but I am convinced an intimacy with Europeans would soon break them from the custom. I once took occasion to mention to SELGIE that he could not hope to become friends with *white* men whilst his countrymen persevered in this practice; he replied they would immediately leave it off and obey the Europeans in all things if they had the opportunity of coming in contact with them, bringing them the produce of the country, and receiving in return such articles as they require, such as salt, tobacco, cloth, beads &c. I have heard the same from other Rajahs, particularly from SEDGEN with whom I could converse in the Malay language without an interpreter. The period is, I trust, fast approaching when they will have the opportunity of so doing. The Europeans will find, with little trouble of cultivation, an obedient, patient and hardy race of men; they will discover an extensive country rich in soil, and mineral productions, abounding with the staple commodities of Eastern commerce; and what perhaps is of still greater importance, they will become known to an immense population who are in the utmost want of the superabundant productions of Europe, particularly of cloths and fancy articles, which they can easily pay for with bees-wax, edible birds-nests, agar-agar, gold-dust, and other valuables. Trepang and tortoiseshell may be procured off the coast in almost any quantity and the best rattans got for the trouble of cutting. Further west, at *Passier*, the same articles may be procured in similar abundance, considering the size of the country. The gold-dust is, however, more plentiful and finer at *Passier*, and collected with more facility. *Bataliching* has more bees-wax, and less gold. On the coast are also diamond mines, at present very imperfectly worked. Any person who has visited *Pontiana*, *Slako*, and *Sambas*, must know gold-dust can be purchased by the picul, if suitable articles are offered in exchange. The north-western coasts of *Borneo* I believe, are but little known. The north coast has been but little visited by Europeans. All the Bugis and other traders agree that it is by far the richest part of the Island and we have proof of a very dense population who carry on an extensive traffic with *Camboja* and the *Sooloo Islands*, as I have noticed in a former part of this paper. The Diaks, however, have undisturbed possession of the whole of the interior of this large Island, which contains nearly 360,000 square miles, and if a sample of the whole may be taken from *Bagottan*, *Passier*, *Coti*, (through the last of which countries I have travelled at least 600 miles) I should say it is equal in point of climate, and superior in production to any part of Asia, I have seen or heard of. J. D.

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REMARKS ON THE EXPORTS OF COTI.

A person who has never visited beyond the establishment of European settlements in this Archipelago can form but little idea of the immense trade carried on between many of the native states, of which *Coti* is one of the most considerable. The traffic the natives have with Europeans is but a small portion of the whole, and merely intended to procure in return, such articles, as they cannot procure elsewhere, and indeed cannot do without; but the much greater part go to other places in exchange for valuables which constitute their wealth, and which is never disposed of except in cases of peculiar emergency. When we see the large extent of country the Bugis people have more or less under their controul, the produce derived from it, and the trifling prices paid by them for the most valuable articles of eastern commerce, we cannot so much wonder at their anxiety to keep from the knowledge of Europeans, such advantages; they have hitherto done so. With a single exception, I believe myself to be the only European, who has ever left this part of *Borneo*, after having remained on it more than a few days. A residence of nearly fifteen months, has given me many opportunities of being acquainted with the trade of the Bugis, and the familiar terms on which I lived with the Sultan, and bandarree, during the first part of that period, gave me opportunities, which few people could possess. I may here premise that some of the following remarks were written in May 1828. At this time I had seen but little of the country except about the capital. The accounts are chiefly taken from the bandarree's books, who is in league with most of the head-men to deceive the Sultan regarding the produce of the country in which they succeed without difficulty, as the latter is too indolent to give himself any trouble about the concerns of his country, and his frequent use of opium, incapacitates him from much activity. The trade of *Coti* as well as of the native states on this coast, is almost entirely carried on by the Bugis who manage to get the different Rajahs much under their controul: however, many of these are Bugis, such as at *Bagottan* and *Bataliching*. There is some Bugis blood in the family of the Sultan of *Coti*, but not sufficient to induce him to favor them, more than he is compelled to do, through fear of their power which, in matters of commerce, is omnipotent. Bugis prows have no dread of pirates, who invariably respect them, whilst those belonging to others are fair game; besides, the Bugis people have an advantage by acting in concert; there is a sort of free masonry about them; the interest of one is that of another and the injuries of one avenged by them all. Large prows sail annually from *Coti* to the following parts, viz:— on the *Celebes* to all the native places from *Kylie* to *Mandhaar*, thence to the intermediate part of the coast which is covered with inhabitants as far as *Makassar*; to *Boni* and *Wajoo*: the various ports of Java and elsewhere under the Dutch flag; *Singapore*, *Malacca* and *Penang*: *Johore*, *Pahang*; occasionally to *Pontiana*, *Slakoo* and *Sambas*; on the northward and eastward to *Browe*, *Seboo* and as far as the *Sooloo* Islands. The smaller prows trade about the coast and are very numerous; these avoid the western coast as much as possible, seldom venturing further than *Bagottan*, where they are supplied by the piratical Chief of that place, with all descriptions of European plunder, brought there by the Rajah's brother, the noted RAGA. The principal traffic is carried on towards the northern and eastern parts of the island—*Browe*, *Seboo*, and other places, where the population is extremely dense, and where great trade is carried on, with the *Camboja* country and the *Sooloo* Islands, particularly those of *Megidano* and *Palawan*. The number of native prows of all descriptions entering and leaving the *Coti* river are, annually, from 705 to 725. *Coti* has, at least, three hundred and eighty miles of sea-coast, and the jurisdiction of the Sultan, inland, extents as far as *Marpow*, a distance, via the river, about five hundred and sixty miles. The Sultan, however, receives into his country, the produce of the various countries of the Dia'ks in his neighbourhood, who exchange gold-dust, edible nests, bees-wax, and other valuable commodities for salt, tobacco, beads and cloth, or indeed any article the Bugis think proper to give them.

BIRDS-NESTS—one of the principal and most valuable articles of exportation is the edible nests, white and black; these are found in much greater abundance, in and about *Coti* than any other part of *Borneo*, or from what we at present know on the subject, all parts put together. On the western coast, they are scarcely known to exist; about *Banjermassin* and *Bagottan* there are none; at *Bataliching* and *Passier* they are found in considerable quantities. At *Browe* there is abundance of the black kind of a very superior quality, but little of the white. At *Seboo* and all the parts to the north of *Borneo*, we know there is none, as I have seen many letters from different Rajahs of those countries, averring the fact, and begging the Sultan of *Coti* to exchange his edible nests for their most valuable commodities and at his own price. Nor ought this to create surprise, when we consider, not only the large consumption of this article by the Cambojans who almost exclusively inhabit some of the largest *Sooloo* Islands, and the northern parts of *Borneo*, but the amazing demand on the whole coast of *Camboja*, particularly of *Cochin-China*, the principal inhabitants of which countries, are as partial to this luxury as their more northern neighbours, the Chinese. There are in *Coti* and adjacent Diak countries perhaps eighty known places, or what the natives term holes, which produce the white nests. I have seen the names of forty three; there can, however, be no doubt there are many more likewise, known to the Diaks, who keep the knowledge to themselves, less the Bugis should dispossess them, which they know from experience is invariably the case. According to the accounts of the Sultan, rendered by SAIB ABDULLA the bandarree, last year yielded 134 piculs. The former is informed that the present year will not yield more than 120 piculs. It is, however, certain there are at the present moment in *Tongarron* and *Semerindan*, above at least 100 piculs, and the principal Diak rajahs have not yet sent down the usual supply: however, until I possess more certain information I shall quote 120 piculs of 100 catties each. The usual price in money to the *Coti* traders is 23 reals per catty from the Diaks; 25 in barter. Of black nests, many of the above remarks are applicable; they may be procured in great abundance; the best kinds come from *Cinculeram* and *Baley Papang*. (It may be here remarked that the black nests, frome *Browe*, are preferable to any found in *Coti*, excepting in *Cinculeram*.) The mountain of *Baley Papang* alone yields 230 piculs of 120 catties to the picul. *Cinculeram* gives nearly as much; there are several other parts of *Coti*, which produce it, besides the quantity brought down by the Diaks. Last year 830 piculs paid duty to the Sultan; these left the large *Coti* river; those from *Cinculeram* and *Bongan* were taken to *Browe* and *Seboo*. The bandarree's book averages the annual weight of that collected in the lower part of *Coti* at 820 piculs. The Pangeran *Seripa* and the Sultan say they could collect 2700 piculs of black nests, if the bandarre and capella-campong would behave honestly; the Sultan however, seldom gets any account of what is sent to *Browe*, *Seboo*, and the *Sooloo* Islands, the quality of which is far superior to any sent to European Ports, as they receive in return from the *Cambojans*, the pure silver of Cochin-China, which is weighed with and taken at the same rate as Spanish Dollars: it is, however, much better silver. (In 1827 I sent three slabs weighing Sa. Rs. 90 to Calcutta, and I received 5 per cent above their weight.) As I am, in this imperfect sketch, disposed to take the minimum of all produce, I will only note down 750 piculs, which have been already weighed at *Semeridan* and *Tongarron*. Only one gathering has yet been made at *Baley Papang* which has yielded 120 piculs: there are two more to be made this year. The price of black nest in barter at this moment is 55 reals per picul; from the *Coti* people it may be obtained for 40 reals, half money and half barter.

BEES-WAX may be procured in almost any quantity; it is amazing to see the immense quantities brought down by the Diaks; it is an excellent article of trade to *Seboo* where the *Cambojan* prows purchase it at high prices. The quality found here is very superior; that found in many parts of the Diak rajah SELGIE'S country being perfectly white, and of a beautiful transparency. In every part of *Coti*, wax is taken by the Bugis assisted by their slaves. These people are generally so lazy that they give themselves little trouble in gathering it, prefering to purchase from the Diaks, which they do for articles of the most trifling value. SELGIE, the great rajah, has at least 900 men in the district of *Marpow* alone, employed solely in procuring wax. Already this year he has accumulated 1430 piculs and expects 1000 more; 1735 piculs have already been sent to *Browe* and *Seboo*, this being a staple article in the *Camboja* market as well as in China; it is likewise much sought after by the inhabitants of *Magidano* and *Palawan*. SEDGEN, a powerful Diak rajah, indeed only second to SELGIE in point of territory, has latterly sent to *Coti* about 1300 Piculs, but this year he will send none,

as the Sultan and he have quarrelled and are now preparing for war. The petty chiefs under him, notwithstanding this, will contrive to send their produce into the *Coti* market, as there are many necessaries brought by the Bugis prows, such as salt, and tobacco, they cannot possibly dispense with. The Sultan has in *Tongarron*, at present, perhaps 950 piculs and the Bugis of *Semerindan*, by their own account, 950. As the usual supply from the Diaks will not come down the river earlier than August or September I will, for the present, satisfy myself with quoting the averaged quantum which has paid duty for the last five years, viz. 2 500 piculs. I believe this to be scarcely half the actual amount of this year' product.

AGAR-AGAR ; of this, quantities are annually procured ; it is a valuable article, and much depended on, in the northern and eastern trade. I do not find that any considerable portion of what *Coti* produces, is sent to the European ports; last year the Sultan sent away the whole of what he had collected and which cost him 4,720 reals ; *Browe*, *Seboo* and the native states further northward engrossed the whole and would do, if it were much greater. As Agar-Agar is an article I cannot speak of so confidently as I could wish, I will take the average value of the last five years, the value paying duty being 8,750 reals.

TRIPANG is gathered about the coast by the smaller prows ; there is great abundance of this slug, but the people are very timid in looking for it, the pirates being always on the coast. It is, of course, in great request for the *Camboja* market, the habits of all the people on that coast (from the most western point to the province of *Tonkin*,) being very similar to their northern neighbours. The bandarre's accounts corroborated by the capella of *Semirendan*, make the usual quantity exported 1,750 piculs. Were this coast not so much infested by pirates, tripang might be taken to the amount of four and five thousand piculs. The Sultan says as much is procured by pirate prows, which are always fishing when other game is not in view.

TORTOISE-SHELL.—This article is subject to similar inconveniences as tripang; the pirates get most of it. RAGA'S prows alone take from the coast 70 piculs annually ; the Sultan of *Coti* declares, that more than 35 piculs never left the *Coti* river in any one year ; and this year he does not anticipate more than twenty ; most of that which I have seen is of a beautiful sort. The Bugis and others are very good judges of it.

GOLD-DUST is not procured in any very large quantities, although the country abounds in it. *Coti* gold-dust is considered equal in quality to that of *Passier*, and it might be got in larger parcels, but the gathering of the nests has in a great measure impeded the usual supplies. All the people in this country conceive that where gold is sought after, the birds invariably disappear; therefore as birds-nests are a much more profitable article than gold-dust, the Sultan has prohibited the searching for it under severe penalties. The Bugis, notwithstanding, contrive to get considerable quantities : in 1827 two prows only carried away ninety-two catties. The usual price is 25 reals per buncal. The Sultan has, at this moment, in his possession at *Bongan*, an immense quantity of this article, formerly the property of his uncle *Per Batti Sari* who died in January 1828. This Pangeran was a man of most penurious habits ; he formerly resided at *Passier*, the most valuable part of which country belonged to him. He came to *Coti* about thirty years since, with fifteen piculs of gold-dust, since which time he has been accumulating from all quarters ; he was never known to sell any. By the Sultan's account he left eighteen piculs of gold, besides an immense sum in dollars and jewels ; but the two brothers of the Sultan and the pangeran SERIPA say the weight of gold-dust must be near twenty-five piculs. The whole of this treasure belongs to the Sultan, and is buried in the ground at *Bongan* (according to the Bugis custom) in three different places, one of which only has hitherto been opened ; it was found to contain that portion brought from *Passier* ; the Sultan would not permit the other two depositories to be touched.

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BORNEO.

DEATH OF PANGERAN PER BATTI SARI, AT BONGAN;

In the month of January, 1828, was poisoned the uncle of the present Sultan of *Coti*, Pangeran PER BATTI SARI, at a place called *Bongan*. This pangeran was the richest and most powerful man of his time and possessed almost at much territory as the Sultan himself. He was the only brother of the late Sultan of *Coti*. Besides the large countries of *Markammon; Cinculeram* and *Bongan* belonging to him, he owned some of the most cultivated parts of *Passier*, a country N.E. of *Coti* and abounding in gold-dust and tortoiseshell. The death of this Prince caused great stir throughout the whole country, not only on account of the manner of his departure from this world, but from the fact of his dying without disclosing to any one the places where his wealth was deposited: this was known to be immense. The pangeran was always of a most careful disposition and had, early in life, amassed large sums of money and gold-dust. At the age of 20 he came into possession of his father's property; thirty years since, he removed from *Passier* to *Bongan* according to the present Sultan's account and that of others who remember the circumstance. It required three large prows to convey his silver money along the rivers. From the period of his settlement in *Bongan* to his death, he had been most sedulously employed in collecting money, from all quarters, and lived most miserably, allowing himself and followers scarcely sufficient to eat. The whole of his wealth was deposited in the ground in places known only to himself; this is the common method of all these people to preserve their treasure. Slaves were often employed in depositing gold or silver, but then poisoned immediately after the service was effected, that the secret might not escape them; the same is practised all over the coast of Borneo as well as in most parts of the *Celebes*. Although the depositories of the pangeran's wealth was a profound secret and even unknown to his only sister, the present Sultan's mother who was always a great favorite, yet, every one imagined the secret would be confided to her at the close of the man's life, but this was not the case. Besides a large number of Gundies or concubines, this pangeran had several wives, as is usual with numbers of the royal family, one of which had, throughout her life, been the favorite; latterly, however, some falling off on his part was observed and the usual attention and regard transferred to another and a younger lady. This neglect induced the woman to have recourse to smoking opium, which was not her previous habit; at length, her passions were worked upon by the inebriating effects of this drug & slighted treatment on the part of the pangeran and his family to such a pitch, that she resolved, in spite of the obvious consequence, to poison her husband. However, before she put this resolve into execution, she tried the effect of the ingredient on two slaves attendant on the new mistress; they both died the same night, but without exciting the smallest suspicion of her conduct. Some mornings after this, the lady whom the pangeran had lately taken into his house, was found dead in her bed; foul play was now suspected, first by the Sultan's mother; but nothing certain could be detected, for these people have no idea of opening a body to discover what may have been recently eaten. At length, the pangeran was taken ill after supping from a dish, it was well known this disappointed woman had cooked; he lived nearly two days in great agony and died without disclosing the grand secret about his treasure. Although perfectly in his senses, no inducement of his sister could get the desired information. The old miser continued to think he would recover even when his body was little better than a mass of corruption from the active effects of the poison. The woman confessed the fact; she was killed by order of the Sultan's mother; the whole of her property with some houses she possessed being burnt with her body. The news of this event arrived in *Coti* the latter part of January, when immediate orders were given to put on the usual mourning for 40 days; during which period no game of any description must be played or any musical instrument. Every man and male child must have his head shaved and wear a white habit which is their mourning colour; the whole of the women were obliged to set up a hideous scream at certain

parts of the day on a given signal from the Sultan's house This order was strictly obeyed. I informed the Sultan that it was contrary to a European's religion to shave his head, but I would put on mourning which I did by covering my cap with a piece of white cloth. My greatest punishment was in not being permitted to shoot ; so I was obliged to oil my gun and lay it by. Strict orders were given, under pain of death, that no one should presume to talk of the manner of the pangeran's death, and it was only from the Sultan's concubines any information which might be depended upon could be obtained. However, I heard a letter read, sent by the Sultan's mother to her son, detailing the particulars of her brother's death with much good feeling ; she deplored the fact of his not having informed her where his large sums of money were deposited. The following are the concluding lines of her letter : " My deceased brother had been ever good to me, and always faithfully promised to point out his treasures previous to his death, that they might be enjoyed by my son ; he has, however, gone without having done so, thinking to the last moment of his dissolution, that he should recover ; as for myself, I am old and do not want any thing, but it is proper you, as Sultan of this country, should possess this property which is indeed now your own. I shall not inter my brother until you come and assist at the ceremonies of his funeral, which it is your duty to perform. I wish likewise that you would come and take command of this country which is too much for my weak hands, and exert all your power to discover the hidden places where this wealth remains, which to my knowledge is enormous. Orders have been given that no person shall presume to approach within 600 fathoms of any of his houses under penalty of death ; sorry I am to say several men have been already killed within this distance ; this is my duty at present, but would suit you much better." The old lady concluded this letter with deploring that amongst such wealth she has not enough of ready money by her to bury her brother in a suitable manner, and begs 1000 dollars may be immediately sent to her for that purpose. On the receipt of this and similar letters, the Sultan became much enraged and wrote back to his mother a most angry letter saying, it did not become him to pay any respect to the memory of his deceased uncle who, in his opinion, had forfeited all claim to his regard by hoarding up wealth, to accumulate which he had impoverished the country and afterwards in a manner thrown it away ; that he would not attend the funeral. He mentioned the Spdrs. 1000 he had sent out of regard to his mother and not from any respect to the remains of his uncle, but that ere long he would arrive and lay waste the country in search of the treasure. This letter from the Sultan received an early reply from his mother, who was, throughout the country, looked to with the greatest respect and veneration, and indeed appeared a very superior woman. She gave the Sultan some excellent advice, warning him not to scoff at the religion of his father but to bear trouble quietly; as for burying his uncle until he came to the funeral, she would not, and urged the Sultan to make the journey whilst the habits of the late pangeran were yet fresh in the recollection of the people who else might die, or forget many circumstances which probably would serve as a clue to find out the wished-for secret. The Sultan however, did not leave *Tongarron* his capital, until early in May and arrived at *Bongan* in about nine days. It appears, a temporary burial had already taken place until the Sultan's arrival, when a heavy flat form and an immense mass of earth were to be lifted together with the coffin and deposited in more sacred ground. The weight was such that the Sultan was obliged to send for some Diaks ; he himself told me it required more than 1000 men to perform the service. The difficulty of finding out the place where the wealth lay was not so great as might be supposed, at least as to a great part of it. They say not more than half has already been discovered ; this however, cannot be known, as the amount of the pangeran's treasure was never well known. All his pleasure consisted in adding fresh heaps in the most likely places of concealment, and when once the earth had covered a certain quantity in any one heap it was never again disturbed ; the jungle was suffered to grow around and over it ; the slaves who assisted in burying it were poisoned and the pangeran himself only knew the spot from its vicinity to a certain tree, a large stone, or what was more common, between two trees. At this present moment, all the Bugis and rich people bury their money in the same manner, and almost daily in some parts are such hoards discovered by people digging and clearing away the jungle ; in seven cases out of ten, the men themselves forget where they have put this wealth. Opium-smoking, together with old age, causes the memory to fail which is the reason of so many of these people dying apparently poor although their riches are known to a certainty. Others again, like this pangeran, will not tell even on their death-beds. Throughout this country an immense sum of money is thus deposited which in the course of time will doubtlessly be found.

But to return to the pangeran at *Bongau:* enough has been discovered and taken possession of by the Sultan to prove that rumour spo e truth re arding his property. Several lots of gold-dust, were first found near his garden ; up to the 29th of July at least six piculs weight were taken ; the Sultan's mother says there must be at least twelve piculs more, it being well-known to her, 30 years ago, when the pangeran removed from *Passier,* he had more than that quantity of gold-dust, and some idea could be formed of what he had since received; besides on the Sultan mounting the throne, about 12 years since, he had acknowledged having 15 piculs The Sultan's brothers and his women, from whom I have my information, say much more has been found, perhaps all that was expected, but it is kept a profound secret and no one is allowed to make enquiries on the subject. The money already in the Sultan's possession belonging to the late pangeran is acknowledged to be dollars 600,000 in hard dollars; there is, however, an immense weight of silver in the small Dutch coin fanams or silver double guilders. It is remarkable that this pangeran would never receive a silver rupee of any description ; nothing would he accept but Spanish dollars and the small silver fanams ; the money already found is somewhat more than drs. 850,000.

There are, moreover, large collections of valuable diamonds, in which precious stones the old man was a good judge. In the different houses were found three years' produce of the country, in tortoiseshell, birds'-nests, bees'-wax, and other articles ; the lowest calculation made here (at *Tongarron*) is by old Pangeran RATO, one of the royal family, and friendly with the deceased ; he says, altogether, there may be drs. 2,000,000, two millions of dollars ; others who pretend to have better information says a million more ; whatever it may be, the Sultan has got the whole of that found, and is looking with a sharp eye after more. Such feasting and rejoicing was never known as what took place after some months. The whole of the chiefs of the country were invited to *Markammon* nearly 200 miles further up the country than *Tongarron.* and I had a special invitation ; the subandhar was sent with the Sultan's state-boat to bring me. Every day was a gala and nothing to be seen but gambling throughout all classes of men, together with feasting, music and dancing. Those who are fond of cock-fighting might be highly gratified, for in no part of the world are there to be seen such fine birds as here ; every person has several ; the chiefs many hundreds each, and the Sultan has a privilege of taking one from every man in the country who has three ; so, whatever number of cocks a man may have, the Sultan takes a third of the whole, and he has his choice. Being fond of the sport he does not forget to take the best, and for that reason generally wins ; the average weight of the cock is about 9 lbs. not less. It is amazing what pains are taken with these birds ; the breed is attended to with great care; at least 6 months previous to the contest, they go through a regular course of training, which on the stage or place of fighting, produces a wonderful effect. I question whether the race-horse in England is taken more care of than the game-cock amongst the Bugis people. The breed is carefully looked to and no cock is allowed to fight under three years old. The young birds are continually sparring with each other six months before they fight. All the cocks are drugged with opium to deaden their feelings. The Sultan allows so much opium monthly for the cocks ; indeed the poorest man will stint himself and family of the common necessaries of life to purchase enough of this drug for his cocks ; two or three times every day, the smoke of opium is blown into their eyes and the effect is astonishing: even a cock of inferior quality will behave well when so treated The opium deadens the flesh and takes away all fear and sense of pain These cocks are, however, by nature perfectly game ; indeed it is very seldom one is seen to run ; they fight with one spur only, shaped like a sabre, and sharpened like the edge of a razor ; a battle is soon decided, as the spurs used in England are comparatively nothing in point of severity compared to these. and I am convinced the best English game-cock would scarcely ever win a battle with the Malay breed, were each armed in their own peculiar manner ; besides the latter are much more powerful. The battles take place on a wooden stage about three yards in diameter ; round this ring hundreds of people are seen sitting, betting in the most eager manner ; there is a seat set apart for the Sultan, who, I observed, always fastened the spur upon his own cocks. Probably at the ro al cock-pit at Westminister there is not more money lost in a day, than at one of these meetings; the rich people will bet as much as 800 dollars on a battle, but most of the stakes are in gold-dust: No man will go away on losing all he brou ht with him ; I have seen them sell every article they possessed, including houses, slaves, &c. The Malays will sell their wives and children, after which they will stake themselves against a certain sum ; in the event of losing they are slaves to the winner for life, or until the money is paid. The Bugis will not go so far as this, at least, I have

not observed it in any one ; these people stop after they have lost their houses and slaves. All winnings must be paid immediately ; should the amount not be forthcoming in 24 hours the winner is allowed by the law of the place to kill the debtor, and this they always do ; no less than fourteen men were killed in this manner at *Markammon* in a few days. The Sultan receives 25 per cent on all winnings which must be staked before the battle; he likewise sells the spurs, no one else being allowed to do so. At these battles, I have observed the greatest frauds practised ; no European ought, on any account, to interfere, as he is certain to lose, and may get into trouble. I have seen when the Sultan or his chiefs have been fighting against the Diak chiefs, when the bets were considerable, foul play was always resorted to. The Sultan's people handle the cocks when fighting; when these men find the Sultan or his friends losing, they will squeeze the other cock while in their hands and disable him from continuing the battle. This I have noticed many times ; were a person to tax the opposite side with this conduct, the consequence would, most likely, be a stab from a kris ; every one wears this dagger and it is out in an instant.

It is a matter of astonishment to see how well satisfied all the people are when they lose money to the Sulton ; I am almost inclined to think many would rather lose to him than gain from another person ; when he offers to bet with any one, however great the odds may be in his favour, it is immediately taken and the lost bet paid with pleasure ; there is a kind of fascination about this, for I never knew one refuse him, even those who were not in the habit of betting ; as sure as the Sultan bets he wins ; had I been inclined to bet I would always have taken his side, but I had firmly made up my mind not to hazard a dollar. Every person urged me to it, saying the Sultan would be angry ; however, what little money I had was not meant to go into his pocket. One day the Sultan spoke to me before all his chiefs, saying it was the custom of his country and he expected I would play a little with him. This was an opportunity I had long been looking for, finding myself much annoyed by such frequent importunity ; I therefore told him that to game was against the religion of Englishmen ; by so doing I should forfeit the regard of all my countrynen and that rather than so expose myself I would suffer death. I likewise told him if either himself or people importuned me any more on that subject, I would leave the place for *Tongarron*. Upon this, he said he was not aware gaming was against my religion, but it being so he would be sorry to press me further. From this time they gave me no further trouble : the way to manage these people is not to seem afraid of them. I must confess that had fair play gone on, I would probably have risked a trifle upon the cocks, but their villainy was too apparent ; besides, once commencing with these people, I should have a difficulty in leaving off. In this I pursued the wise plan.

These are other games, played at by the lower orders of people, such as may be seen in all Malay countries ; this is encouraged by the Sultan who gets 25 per cent upon all monies lost ; the consequences are terrible ; robberies and murders daily take place and are thought little of. The Sultan himself is a most sordid avaricious character and will gladly win from his people the smallest trifle which he receives with all the glee of a little mind ; but should he lose, bad humour is the immediate consequence and he cannot help shewing it. One morning he lost 30 dollars, when I happened to say, in presence of his people, that I was happy to see him lose occasionally, as he was generally a winner, and from his gains could well afford a trifle ; this speech of mine I had occasion to repent ; the Sultan said nothing to me, but one of his women bid me do something by way of putting him again in good humour, as some of his people would certainly stab me were they to suppose the Sultan were the least offended, which he would inform them when he awoke (he was then asleep) as indeed he had threatened. A canister of gunpowder made us excellent friends once more, but for many days afterwads I went well armed until the Sultan won more money, at which I expressed great joy. The same woman said I was high in favour, but warned me to be careful in future. J. D.

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BORNEO.

MASSACRE OF MAJOR MULLEN AND HIS PARTY.

Tongarron, Coti, May, 1828.

The murder of this officer and his people having excited much interest in various parts, and his fate being involved in much mystery, from the circumstance of no European having visited the country since that affair, and the care taken by the people here to conceal the transaction, I have been induced to make all possible enquiry, in order if possible, to ascertain the truth, in hopes, that should I have the good fortune to escape from this country, Europeans may avoid his fate, or at some future time, avenge his death. In prosecuting this enquiry, I find the utmost circumspection necessary, as, were it known I thought on the subject with a sinister view, neither myself, nor companion, Mr. Hecksler, would live an hour. (Mr. Hecksler is a Danish gentleman who has been long in this country and known the people well.) We, at this moment, live in a bamboo hut about 100 yards from the Sultan's house, in the midst of his brothers, and their people who, for five dollars, would cut each others throats. My information is certain as far as it goes, having received it from the Sultan's brothers, and persons who were themselves concerned in the business. By affecting to treat the matter with perfect indifference, I find them well disposed to communicate and give me all the information I could desire. In the first place I will relate the affair, as told me by the Sultan himself, and which may be considered an official account. It is, however, necessary in the first place to mention the character of the man who now holds the situation of subandhar of the country, (which situation he has retained about eight years,) as he will be found to bear a prominent part in all which concerns MULLEN. This SAIB ABDULLA was in Java formerly, and by his own account, was obliged to fly the country for debt; he owed the Government money and obtained from Mr. Hecksler Drs. 3,500 (the receipt of which he acknowledges) one doit of which was never paid; from Java he went to *Banjermassin* and was employed under Mr. HARE then Commissioner; on the resumption of that place by the Dutch, he entered that service; about 1819 or 1820 he was detected defrauding the Government and left the place. His own opinion seems to be that had he remained, he would have been hanged; a reward was offered for his apprehension, but he escaped to *Coti* where by his specious and dissembling conduct, and from the circumstance of being a tolerable Malay scholar, he ingratiated himself into the Sultan's good opinion, who appointed him Subandhar, in which situation he has since continued. SAIB ABDULLAH dislikes all Europeans, but his hatred to the Dutch is so great, that he cannot conceal it in conversation, notwithstanding he is certainly the most smooth-tongued, dissembling hypocrite I have ever met with, in a native. He is by no means clever; on the contrary in most matters stupid, but he has to deal with people who have never been from their country and know nothing; therefore, amongst them, he passes for a man of great abilities, and by humouring the Sultan keeps safe. The Sultan acknowledges that SAIB ABDULLA has many enemies in the country, and but for his, the Sultan's authority, would have been long since murdered. The account of the Sultan is as follows:—When MAJOR MULLEN arrived at *Coti* in the early part of the year 1825, he was accompanied by 24 Javanese soldiers; for some time, he resided at *Semerindan*, (a small town about 50 miles, from the coast, and the same distance from *Tongarron* the capital.) At this place he lived on terms of great intimacy with SAIB ABDULLA the subandhar, and with him made the treaty between the Dutch Government and the Sultan of *Coti*, wherein the Sultan agreed to give all the duties of his country to the Dutch Government in consideration of the sum of 8,000 Java Rupees which was to be yearly paid to the Sultan. This being settled and the passes signed, the Major with his people visited *Tongarron* and lived upon a small island, about a mile from the main land, above a month, when Major MULLEN signified his intention of proceeding over-land to *Sambas* or *Pontiana*. This project was by no means approved of by the Sultan, who strongly represented to him the great danger he would run in the attempt; but the Major persisting, the Sultan desired him to sign a paper purporting that it was at his own (Major MULLEN'S) express desire, he should go forward. The party then embarked in boats to proceed up the river, but were heard of no more; "*they were murdered by the Diaks very far in the interior, and within* 100 *miles of Pon-*

tiana." Such is the Sultan's account; and such is likewise the subandhar's relation of the affair.

In receiving this account, and putting together all the circumstances which have come to light, I can have no hesitation in asserting, the whole is a fabrication of falsehood, and that Major MULLEN with his people, were killed in the kingdom of *Coti* and within 100 miles of the Sultan's house. If the Sultan was not personally present at the time, he well knew what must take place, the whole having been previously arranged with the subandhar and others. The treaty which the subandhar had made with the Major, was scouted by all the Sultan's family, and the principal people of the place, it being understood, this officer had sold the country to the Dutch for some private gratification, and that the subandhar was bribed by Major MULLEN; this is yet the common opinion. SAIBABDULLA finding he had committed himself resolved to dispose of MULLEN in a manner, that no harm should reach himself in consequence of his share in the treaty. He therefore recommended as a guide, the son of the pangeran RATO, a young man of notoriously profligate principles. The receipt which the Sultan received from the Major, as to his determination to go forward, was evidently obtained for the purpose of shifting all blame from himself, and to make it appear how contrary to his advice it was the Major proceeded. This method of getting a receipt is very common amongst these people, who do it to screen themselves from blame, and throw it upon others. That the Major fell by the hand of pangeran RATO'S son is known to every person. When news arrived of two Europeans coming into the country, he instantly left the place, and has not since returned; at this moment he is living about 100 miles up the country, at the place where the Major was killed, and where he has some command; he owns the double-barrelled gun belonging to MULLEN. The intelligence of the massacre of the party was known here (at *Tongarron*) ten days after they left the place; now, it is quite impossible for the swiftest boat to pull up the *Coti* river morethan 40 miles per day, as there is always a tide running out, of from 6 to seven knots an hour, but it is not at all likely that the party would average more than 15 or 20 miles daily, as besides the difficulty of pulling against the tide with heavy boats, the Major frequently landed for the purpose of surveying the country which indeed appeared to be his principal object. From all prominent points on both banks of the river, which is sometimes 2 miles broad, he took observations, and wrote down every thing remarkable. These being facts known to every one in the country, how can the Sultan and others assert that the party were on the borders of *Pontiana*, which (by the river and the way they went) is not less than (800) eight hundred miles from *Tongarron*, and this the shortest and indeed the only practicable route, when in 10 days, the deed was perpetrated and some of the people returned with part of the plunder to the Sultan? If, as the Sultan of *Coti* asserts, he could never learn any particulars of the murder, notwithstanding his frequent enquiries, how happens it, so much of the Major's property was immediately transmitted to him and which at this moment is in his possession, within 100 yards distance of myself, who am now writing these events? Amongst the other articles which Mr. Hecksler and myself almost daily see, are the following: one eight-day chronometer, the makers' names, on the dial, *Cape* and *Molyneux, London* No. 405—a quadrant, and sextant, the former English, the latter of French-make; a ship's compass, and an instrument for taking distances, likewise French—with many other articles which he acknowledges to have belonged to the party, together with several of their muskets, bayonets and the drum which is daily beaten for the Sultan's pleasure by a Dutch deserter. All these and many other things Mr. Hecksler and myself have frequently desired the Sultan to send to *Java* as a proof of his own innocence in the matter. However, he answers—"it is of no consequence, as by this time the Dutch have forgotten the transaction and I have already given them to understand the murder took place on the confines of *Pontiana*, where I have no controul." The Sultan says all the things he has belonging to the Major MULLEN, were taken from the river where they remained many days after the affair, but this is contradicted by the circumstance of the time-keeper's not having a single spot of rust upon it; it is in excellent order, neither are any other articles damaged except by the careless conduct of his own people. It is some satisfaction, to know that four of the Javanese soldiers escaped the slaughter, and are at this time living up the country; but the Sultan will, on no account allow them to come down to the sea coast; and were I to go up, they would be sent out of the way. It is much to be hoped, that one or more of these men may yet be recovered, to give further information concerning this foul business. There are however many people now here, who were of the party and who are well inclined to give the information, if they were safe away from the place. There is one of the Sultan's slaves named *Seredin* a Javanese (who was sold by the pirates to the Sultan,) much disposed to escape, and who points to the subandhar as the principal throughout.

[*Pulished in the Singapore Chronicle, May* 1831.]

BORNEO.

MR. DALTON'S THOUGHTS ON COTI.

After having lived in the country of *Coti* eleven months, I find myself at sea, in a Malayan prow of 20 tons burthen, bound for Singapore, but quite as likely to go to any other part, the people depending more upon their prayers to Mahomet, than on any exertion of their own. I am, however, happy to find myself once more likely to reach some European place, as three days since I was in such peril amongst the people, that I would willingly have ventured to sea by myself in a small canoe, with a jar of water and a few handfuls of rice. It is entirely beyond my power to give more than a faint description of the treatment, I have experienced amongst the people of *Coti* for the last eight months. Scarcely covered with a bamboo shed, which nestled the most venemous snakes, which have more than once dropped upon the paper whilst I was writing, with nothing to eat but rice and dried fish, with bad water to drink, (what little wine and liquor I brought with me was expended within the first three months ;) robbed of every thing, even to my jacket, by the Sultan himself, and scarcely a night passed over without attempts being made to murder me. I was told by those on whom I could rely, that if I could not persuade the Sultan he would gain more by sparing my life than by killing me, I was certainly gone, as this was the common method with him. Upon this I put my wits to work, and found the matter not so difficult. By presents of any little articles that remained to me, I bribed some of the Sultan's favorite concubines and one or two of the slaves, to whom he was most partial, and soon learned my cue. Many consultations had been held at which the Sultan and all his brothers were agreed for putting myself and Mr. H. out of the way. One of the head people, named *Inchi Gundel*, however, reminded the Sultan that it was well known by the government at Singapore that I was in the country, who on the event of my not returning would certainly seize all the *Coti* prows. The d'jragon of a Sambas prow, which arrived in the month of March, informed the Sultan, that to his knowledge, I was very rich, and one of the principal men in Penang, being related to the Governor of that place. To my knowledge I had never seen the man before ; however, I claimed the relationship and took credit for all the riches they could give me. I then proposed to the Sultan to make a contract with him, sending him from Singapore what money and articles he required, to receive payment in produce, at a future season This is what the Sultan had frequently wanted, while I well knew the impossibility of performing it. But now nothing was impossible, my only desire being to leave the country. SAIB ABDULLAH, the bandarre undertook to manage on the part of the Sultan. This man, the very worst in the whole country, had formerly lived amongst the English at *Banjermassin*, and was looked upon by his master as a prodigy. He had escaped from that place as well as Java on account of crimes which would certainly have hung him. He planned the whole business regarding the massacre of MAJOR MULLEN who unfortunately confided in him, leading him on step by step to his ruin, and under various pretences depriving him of his resources. SAIB ABDULLAH is the agent for selling arms and gunpowder to the Bugis at Macassar, and in fact, the head and principal of all opposition to all the European powers. It is a fact that he is hated by every individual in the country ; I have never yet met with one man who hesitated to acknowledge his desire to kill him, but who only feared the vengeance of the Sultan who protects him.

I very soon found myself capable of turning this man to my purpose, by a promise of lending him a sum of money. The drawing up of the contract between myself and Sultan proceeded on my part with as much apparent anxiety as if I really intended to abide by it, on the other side with every attempt to impose on me. At length, we arranged matters at *Marpow*, where we signed a contract, by which I agreed to send him articles to the value of 40,000 drs. and about half that sum in money. At this place, I took the bandarre's advice, and rented a mountain called *Baley Papang*, which produces edible black birds-nests, and for which an

offer had already been made of drs. 500 per annum; but I asserted every one was ignorant of its value, and engaged it for drs. 3,000 per annum, the money to be paid previous to the return of the prows from Singapore. This being settled, I considered myself quite safe, and indeed was so, as the Sultan actually appointed persons to take care of me. I could not go out shooting without 20 chosen men tending upon me, with one of the Sultan's relations to ensure respect amongst the people. Care was taken that I went in no boat too small; it might upset; I was only permitted to bathe in a tank enclosed with strong bamboos, as in the river an alligator might take me; round the cock-pit, a place was assigned me, next to the Sultan, that the Diaks might not be rude or press upon me. It was now found out, for the first time, that the musquitoes were troublesome at night, so I must not only have curtains, but people watching all night that they were kept closed; and during the day time, the Sultan ordered half a dozen women to keep guard with long feathers, so that not even a fly dare venture near me; in short, I was almost smothered with kindness. This lasted until my return to *Tongarron* the capital, where some surmises began to float abroad that I was aware of the fate of Major MULLEN, when I was, at once, in a more perilous predicament than ever, for the slightest suspicion on that subject would have been instantly fatal, (and would be so at this moment, on board the prow.) A circumstance took place which gave me great uneasiness and placed my life at once in the power of others, and which, indeed, was entirely my own fault, having one day departed from my usual caution. The d'jragon of the tope from Sambas, MESMILE, had given to the Sultan about drs. 1,500, to receive in return, bees-wax. He was at *Marpow* with me, but could not get a doit, and was at length obliged to leave the country without any thing. This man, (who was formerly a pirate,) is a shrewd, clever man,; he came to me one morning in an agony of rage against the Sultan, but more particularly against SAIB ABDULLAH the bandarre, who had not only recommended the Sultan to give him nothing, and seize his vessel, but had himself taken nearly drs 1 000. which he refused to pay. I well knew it was in contemplation to seize the tope, and gave MESMILE a hint of it, when we were at *Marpow*. I now advised him to go on board at once, and drop down the river when we would be safe, as none of the Sultan's people dare go near her, she being well armed, and the d'jragon known to be a resolute man. This he promised to do, and asked me to give him a paper to shew the Residents of Singapore and Rhio, where he might possibly obtain some satisfaction; these he received. After looking about carefully, he closed the door of the room in which we were conversing, and with an air of great mystery, enquired whose property that time-keeper was, which was at that moment, laying on my bed. I replied the Sultan's who had given it to me for the purpose of getting it repaired. He then enquired, where was the late resident of Sambas, Major MULLEN killed? I replied, by all accounts near *Pontiana*. "Tell me," says MESMILE, "you who have been so far up the country as *Marpow*, did you ever hear of the Major having reached that place?" I said there could be little doubt of his being killed far beyond it. "Then," replied the d'jragon, "I tell you, Sir, that you are in error, if you think so. You are an Englishman, and I am from Sambas, which is under the Dutch flag. My Sultan is a good man, and the Sultan of *Coti* is worse than a pirate. MAJOR MULLEN was a friend to my Sultan, and I believe you know as well as myself that he was killed in this country, and that the timekeeper belonged to him, for he had it in Sambas." Here I made what I considered a fatal mistake, as instead of denying these assertions, and expressing surprize that he should venture to make them, I made a friend and confidant of him, and out came the whole affair. He was not surprised, having understood much of it previously. I now made up a package for the Resident of Rhio, containing the whole particulars, which MESMILE promised to deliver. After promises of secresy, we parted. I soon found out my folly had committed me, past cure, and that my life hung upon the discretion of a man, who although angry at the Sultan, was likewise a Malay; a man who had been, and was yet supposed to be a notorious pirate, and who well knew he could make friends with the Sultan, and get payment, for divulging such a secret. I did not sleep that night, but the next morning went to him, and let him know that his life, as well as my own, was lost were he to mention a word to any one. He said he knew that and that I had nothing to fear. Some days afterwards, MESMILE went to *Semerindan*, 70 miles down the river, (on the 12th September,) and I was so anxious, that I followed him in a small canoe. I learned at *Semerindan*, which place I reached at midnight, that he had gone towards the mouth of the river, with an intention of going to sea. I immediately followed him, arriving at the open sea in 8 hours, the distance being 80 miles, the current assisting us at least 5 miles an hour. The prow was not to be seen, but we overtook a boat re-

turning with a Bugis Chief who had gone to see him off. I now imagined that it was possible MESMILE, finding himself safe beyond the power of the Sultan, might possibly entrust the secret to his friend the Bugis, who was a very old acquaintance, in which case the chance would be 100 to one against me, as the priests would certainly get at the information. During the period I remained on board the prow at *Semerindan*, 7 days, I had every reason to imagine all was discovered, as meetings were nightly held at the bandarre's house, and likewise in that of the Bugis chief. Boats were dispatched up the country during the night, no one knew for what purpose, and our own d'jargon who was sick, received a visit from the high priest and the identical Bugis, at eleven o'clock one night, immediately after which he went up the country in a swift boat. I was at this moment, so certain of being murdered within a few hours, that I primed my gun, determined either to shoot myself or jump into the river, the moment I was certain my fears were realized. Every circumstance seemed to concur against me and my mind was fully made up; the only satisfaction which remained was the knowledge that all particulars had already been forwarded, so that my death would not prevent Europeans from learning the facts, besides the information which MESMILE would convey. These thoughts consoled me so much, that I felt quite careless about the consequence, when our d'jargon returned, and the particulars of the meeting became known. The former went to take leave of his wife at *Tongarron*, and the consultations were about the property of a rich Bugis lately dead, who had left no will, which occasioned great disputes amongst his relations. My fears were over, it being evident the d'jragon had been faithful in keeping the secret. I had not been 24 hours on board the prow, before a Dutch-made swivel was pointed out to me, by one of the Sultan's people, as having belonged to MAJOR MULLEN. This I knew immediately, having seen the fellow to it mounted on one of the Sultan's boats. The Major brought to the country several Palembang swivels, and one pair of Europeans ones. There are several articles on board which belonged to the same master. At *Semerindan*, SAIB ABDULLAH desired me to be very cautious in shewing the time-keeper to any Dutch gentleman, such was the Sultan's particular wish. I replied, the sight of such a watch would be no novelty to any one; however, there would be no occasion to exhibit it. In every possible way, this man has endeavoured to surprise me into a hasty reply. The pangeran RATO and others about the Sultan have done the same, but they never could; they were all too well known to me.

During my state at *Semerindan* I gained much information I could not get at before, as the Sultan would never allow me to go amongst the Bugis inhabitants of that campong. The whole of the Bugis, are against the Sultan on account of some fresh duties imposed upon their trade up the river, and their hate of the bandarre is, if possible, increased, they thinking the Sultan was acting according to his advice, which is likely enough to be the case. Many of the Bugis talk very openly. They have said to me, "you know all the circumstances about the Sultan murdering MULLEN as well as we do; it was the Sultan's act, and he must take the consequences." I replied, that the Sultan had himself told me how MULLEN was killed by the Diaks, that he was my friend and I should believe no other person. Every person supposed the particulars were known to every slave in the country, and was the subject of daily conversation amongst each other. No one had, however, any reason to suppose, that I had got the proper information, and my business was to appear ignorant, and treat the subject with indifference. The Bugis informed me, when they understood I had gone up the country as far as *Marpow*, they were convinced I should never return; so certain were they of this, that they determined among themselves to give up the truth to the English government, that the blame might fall in the proper place, and not be imputed to them. The pangeran RATO, the father of SAJARRING who murdered the Major with his own hand, wrote particularly to the Sultan that as I had seen his son, and there was actually a necessity for my death, a report, the old man said, could be made that I had either been bitten by a snake or taken by an alligator. I was myself aware of the danger of my situation, but depended upon the Sultan's anxiety of getting possession of the large sum of money and the quantity of valuable goods I had agreed to send him, which alone saved my life, joined to my apparent ignorance about the main point. Not only the Bugis at *Semerindan* but the people of *Tongarron* were astonished to see me return; they however, were not aware of the contract, which at the Sultan's request, was to be kept secret that no one might be aware of what valuable property he would soon have in his possession.

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BORNEO.

REMARKS ON THE BUGIS CAMPONG SEMERINDAN.

On approaching *Semerindan* (the principal Bugis campong) from the sea, the river runs S.E. and N.W. for several miles; no other wind but S.E. will take a vessel up the river at this part, and it must be a strong one if oars are not used, as the tide runs from 4 to 7 knots an hour. The houses are situated on the right bank and extend about a quarter of a mile in length, they are all built of bamboo and covered with cadjans. Most of the people live in floating houses, called "rooma rackets;" they are built on strong pieces of wood or trees and can be moved up or down the river at pleasure. These houses are placed three or four abreast of each other; there are besides, bamboo houses on the land of a superior description inhabited by the anakodas and rich Bugis; the country behind is a complete jungle down to the water's edge; (here and there are to be seen rice and sugar fields;) it would be totally impossible for five men to move abreast of each other only for a few yards, so close and impenetrable is the jungle; the inhabitants never think of cutting or clearing away the trees or long grass around their houses so that within ten yards of the best habitations, the wild wood is as thick as in the most unfrequented parts.

On the entrance from the sea is a point of land upon the left bank of the river which bears N.E. by E. of the "Kraga" or church; this point is a rising unoccupied ground within about a quarter of a mile of the houses on the opposite side, and commands the whole campong; it is the commencement of a ridge of hills which continue about a mile inclining further north which widens the river at this part. At the termination of these hills, the river will be about 1200 yards across. This point on the left bank with approximating land on the opposite side, form a strait or gut; and is a most eligible spot for the erection of a battery, the elevation being about 100 feet with a gentle declivity; a large body of men might land at once here, and immediately act together as this part is entirely free from jungle or obstruction of any description, excepting a few large trees; further up the river, these hills are steep and would be difficult to climb, but from the point, the ridge is gained by an easy gradual approach. About 300 yards from this point, the height of the hills will not be less than 400 yards above the level of the river, and covered with a dense jungle. Under these hills there are some houses, altogether thirty in number. It is, in my humble opinion, easy to prove that a few determined men taking possession of the high ground on this point of land may, if they think proper, destroy the whole campong without difficulty and with little loss.

Opposite *Semerindan*, the tide runs out rapidly 20 hours and then ebbs, sometimes an hour and a half, sometimes two hours; it is then stationary an hour or two, after which it again flows downward.

The rise and fall of the tide is not less than 16 feet, but in times of heavy rain, I have known it 22 feet. Abreast of *Semerindan* and within 100 yards of the houses there are ten fathoms water, but the average depth will be from six to eight fathoms; the ground is a stiff clay and holds well. Here all the principal Bugis dwell and all the prows which sail from *Coti* are kept at this place, none going further up the river; the whole of the trade from every part of the country upon a large scale is here transacted; all cargoes arriving are immediately purchased by the Bugis, and sent up the river in small boats to agents whom they have in every part of the country. *Semerindan* is the grand depot of all exports as well as imports and in point of real strength is able to cope with the Sultan of *Coti* and all the power he can bring. A fews years since they completely beat him, forcing him to leave his capital and fly to a campong named *Markammon*, about 120 miles further up the river, but then they had the assistance of the Bugis from many others parts of the coast, as they always act together on such occasions. The reason why so small a number of the Bugis kept the power of the Sultan at a distance is, they are much better provided with fire-arms, and no inducement can prevail up-

on any number of Diaks or the *Coti* people to approach a musket. The Diaks are very numerous and against each other fight with great bravery ; they willingly engage hand to hand until one is cut down, but it is well known that 10,000 of their men will not adventure near 10 muskets, and the Cotinese are little better. The whole of the inhabitants of *Semerindan* are calculated at 5,500 which number I do not think overrated ; in time of danger they could bring forward 1000 fighting men, but in a case of emergency they could, I am well satisfied, produce double that number. About half of their men have fire-arms, either a musket or a rifle of the worst description ; a pistol is not to be seen in the country ; they have from 70 or 80 swivels of Palembang make, each carrying a ball of from one to two pounds ; these they are very awkward in using ; they are indeed of little use excepting against the Diaks and Cotineese, and with them the mere report of the gun is quite sufficient. All the people have spears and every man a mandow (or short cutting sword.) The more respectable Bugis wear a kris. This is the force which an European power attempting the place would have to cope with.

I am convinced a small brig of war with two well appointed gun-boats and 350 soldiers including 30 artillery men, would accomplish the affair without the loss of twenty men. On going up the river they would find no obstruction, and when this point of land was gained, and a small battery formed upon it, the commanding officer might dictate his own terms. A single shell falling upon any part of the campong would set it on fire, when the whole must be speedily consumed, being composed of nothing but bamboo and dry thatch ; their prows from which they must fire swivels and small arms being amongst the floating houses, would inevitably share the same fate, whilst the gun-boats laying within 100 yards of the shore, by sweeping the place with grape shot, would destroy all attempts to quench the fire, involving the whole in inextricable confusion and ruin. Should the wind be W. S. W. or N. W. fire should be thrown on those houses farthest up the river, thus the burning embers floating down with the tide would consume the whole in a very short time.

On the campong side of the river there is not a patch of ground one fathom above the level of the water upon which they could plant a swivel or even fire a musket without they took possession of the high ground on the opposite bank I have already pointed out, and there are many reasons to suppose they would have no idea of doing this ; besides, with all these people on such occasions, they never think of any thing further than taking care of the house and particular property, but even were they to take advantage of this high ground, they have not the smallest idea of making a battery, or digging a trench, so they might easily be swept from the surface of the hill, which lays exposed within two hundred yards of the gun-boats from which they would have nothing to shelter themselves but a few solitary trees ; they are however, not a description of people who would stand a second shot. Their method of defence would, I have little doubt, be as follows : every man who possessed a prow would moor it close to his rooma racket, or floating house, so that the prow would be partly concealed ; what swivels they could procure would be mounted upon them, being the only places from which they could be fired ; from these and the small arms they would keep up a fire until the campong was in flames which I calculate would infallibly occur within ten minutes ; the whole then would become a mass of confusion, and resistance must be at an end ; the prows being amongst the burning materials without a possibility of extrication, would share the same fate whilst the explosion of the gun-powder on board them would assist the work of ruin. The people would now have only the alternative of escaping on shore amongst the jungle, or getting into small boats and endeavouring to paddle up the river, in doing which they would find no difficulty.

It is not improbable that the Bugis might make a desperate attempt to cross the river and storm the opposite height, if their numbers were in the proportion of ten to one ; in such case it may be relied upon that none but Bugis will be employed, or would venture ; they would throw away the musket and spear and run forward with the kris, their favorite weapon and certainly a deadly one it is in their hands if they get to close quarters ; should they attempt this they must cross the river in small boats exposing themselves to the fire of the gun-boats and on landing on the only point where they could get on shore they must be almost all destroyed by the battery and musketry which could bring a concentrated fire to this point. Although the Bugis generally speaking are desperate characters, I do not think it at all likely they would make such an attempt ; any force approaching this place must expect to see an immense concourse of people assembled, and the river covered with boats, but they would speedily disappear, and leave behind merely the force I have mentioned.

The commanding officer would find, after having disposed of *Semerindan*, the whole country of *Coti* within his power; he need not apprehend another attack upon his position, as the only people, the Bugis, whom he need fear would never be enabled to draw together in sufficient force to annoy him. The people from all parts of country, particularly the Diaks, would immediately come down the river to receive such commands as he might think proper to give: they should, however, by no means be implicitly trusted. Great caution must be used in preventing the people of the expedition from going into any part of the campong. A bazar might be marked out, commanded by a gun or two, where purchases might be made with security. A small battery should be erected on each bank of the river which would effectually prevent boats passing either up or down without a pass; this being accomplished the men would have little more to think of except making themselves as comfortable as circumstances would admit.

When it is considered that every grain of salt consumed on this part of the coast of Borneo, comes from *Makassar*, the prows containing which can enter the country of *Coti* by no other channel than this one river, and that there is not, at any one period, more than two or three months consumption on hand, any person must be convinced that by stopping the supply of this necessary article, he has the whole of the people absolutely in his power. The principal reason why the Bugis have such an ascendancy over the natives is that the whole of the salt is in their possession; it is an exclusive monopoly in the hands of about twenty of the anakodas and principal inhabitants of *Semerindan*. They time the arrivals of the salt prows so that a very large quantity is never on hand at once; as salt is absolutely indispensible to the Diaks and others in the interior, they purchase with it, all kinds of produce at their own price. Should the Bugis quarrel with any particular Diak rajah (which they invariably do when they know he has large quantities of gold-dust, bird-nests, or bees-wax,) they stop the salt altogether; the consequence is he is, within a month, obliged to make a present of half his property for permission to trade on such terms as the Bugis are inclined to grant.

The average quantity of salt yearly arriving in the *Coti* river for the last five years is 800 coyans, in return for which gunpowder and all kinds of warlike stores are received from the Bugis who bring their yearly supplies from Singapore and Penang, but chiefly from the American vessels off the latter port. These furnish the *Makassar* and *Boni* people with more than one half of the whole of their means of annoyance to the Dutch flag, and with the necessary supplies for their pirate prows. At the period (about five years since) when the Bugis were at war with the Sultan of *Coti*, the former stopped the usual supply of salt; the consequence of which measure was, that within three months he was entirely at their mercy, and ultimately was obliged to apply to the Bugis for protection against the Diaks who understanding it was his fault that the salt was stopped, pursued him as far as *Semerindan*. Peace was accordingly made on such terms as the Bugis chose to suggest: this must always be the case when the river is stopped up and salt prevented from entering.

The Diaks and Cotinese finding the usual supply of this article stopped, will at once come into any terms the officer may think proper to dictate. The Sultan and his family, I have no doubt, would be most ready to agree upon the first offer made, they well knowing their heads, with the whole of their property, would be speedily sent down the river if the Europeans were to desire such a sacrifice. It is a notorious fact that there is no crime, however enormous, which these people will hesitate committing, and no act of atrocity at which they will refuse their assistance, if in return they are permitted to purchase salt at a reasonable price, without which they either die or are afflicted with a kind of sickness which terminates in madness, a state they all dread much worse than death.

With the exception of the Bugis, the Cotinese (some few excepted) and the whole of the Diaks, with other people of the country, are by no means dangerous. The Diaks in particular are a tractable, inoffensive race with whom any thing may be done by mild treatment; it is however, always absolutely necessary to shew them such marks of power as will convince them of their inferiority; allow them to take no liberty, and above all things, never place implicit confidence in any of them, particularly when property is concerned, as they cannot resist a temptation. They have little idea of right or wrong, where their interest is concerned, but they are very sagacious and when they can comprehend what it is they are required to do, there is little doubt of their immediate compliance. Should the people of any particular rajah commit violence, a threat of withholding the salt, will cause hundreds of rajahs to assemble to take

immediate and dreadful satisfaction.

The next grand article to salt, is Java tobacco ; they procure this article from most of the ports of Java, but chiefly from Samarang. To stop the supply of tobacco, would have precisely the same effect as that of salt, and it would be easier for the Dutch to effect, having the whole of the article under their immediate controul ; even rice itself is not more necessary to these people than salt and tobacco. They are so improvident that they never think of laying in more stock than will last until the prows return from their annual trip to Java ; but the salt arrives weekly and sometimes daily, as *Mandhaar* is not more than 50 hours sail from the mouth of the *Coti* river, even with their prows ; therefore if there is not a supply of salt in a month, revolution must ensue up the country. The same crisis must arrive should tobacco be kept back four or five months.

To give some idea of the large profits derived by the Bugis people from the salt trade, and the importance it possesses in every respect, I will in the first place notice that on its arrival in the country, there is little or no import duty imposed by the Sultan ; formerly a duty was levied at so much per coyan, but one of the articles of agreement after the late war was that this tax should be no longer paid. The general and average price of salt at *Makassar* is from 8 to 10 rupees per coyan ; in 1828, it was 8. At *Semerindan*, they will on no account sell it under 50 reals or *f.*100 ; during my stay in the country it averaged 56 reals per coyan. At *Tongarron* the capital, the average price was 85 reals, purchasing a whole coyan at once ; of course the farther up the river the dearer it is. Whilst I was at *Marpow*, a distance of aboot 600 miles from the sea, the nominal price was from 200 to 210 reals, but the actual rate was treble that amount, every transaction being a barter in which they put their own price upon what they take in return. I have seen bees-wax, sold for equal weight in salt ; the same with regard to black birds-nests ; further up the country salt was still higher : indeed the profit the Bugis make in bartering with the poor Diaks is incredible.

Marpow is one of the principal campongs, of the country. The Diaks come to it from all the principal parts of the country, bringing with them produce, such as white and black birds-nests, wax and some gold-dust. These articles are of no earthly use to them ; all they require in return are salt and tobacco with a few beads for ornaments and a small quantity of white cloth used at burials. In bargaining for a Diak's dress and some sumpits or tubes (through which they blow the poisoned darts,) I was actually obliged to purchase, in the first instance, a quantity of salt ; money I offered them but they laughed at me ; they have no idea of trading further than offering their goods with one hand and receiving with the other, the articles they immediately want. To conclude my small purchases at *Marpow*, the value of which was not more than *f.*7, I was obliged to buy two piculs of salt at *f.* 19½ per picul, from the Bugis. Such being the facts, it is obvious that those who have the power to with-hold the supply of salt and tobacco possess absolute power and authority over the whole of the people; there is not a single part of this coast of Borneo from point *Salatan* to the northern extremity of the island where they manufacture an ounce of salt or where they can possibly dispense with that necessary article ; the Dutch government have the immediate sole controul over both, and it necessarily follows that they have all these countries at their disposal by stopping up the mouth of the river, which is the only safe and effectual mode.

About 30 miles below *Semerindan* the opening of the first island appears to the eastward, on the bank of the river. This is the particular spot where a small vessel should be stationed, it being above the mouth of all the rivers. These are at least 8 or 10 small islands, the whole of which lay to the eastward ; they present many mouths or entrances into the main river, but the westermost river is the principal one and made use of by the large prows, indeed by every one coming from the westward ; the others are known principally to the people of *Celebes* and those living north east of the *Coti* river ; it would be of little service for two or even three vessels to lay outside the river, as they must of necessity remain several miles from the shore, and the small prows would creep along the western coast and gain one of the small rivers in spite of all precaution to prevent them ; but one vessel laying opposite the mouth of the large river, and a small well-appointed gun-boat up the river just above the last entrance, which I have noticed and which is about 40 miles from the sea, would answer every purpose most effectually ; for although the vigilance of the large vessel might be eluded it would be utterly impossible to pass the smaller one anchored in the middle of the river which at that part is not more than half a mile across.

Before the entrance of the *Coti* river is gained, a bar must be crossed, about 800 yards from the shore. At the time of low water there is not more than 4 or 5 feet over it, but at the period

of spring tides which occur at the full and change of the moon, vessels drawing 13 or 14 feet can easily get over. At the time of high water the average depth over the bar is fifteen feet.

All vessels approaching the Coti river must keep along the western shore ; it is invariably the custom for all prows to make the high land called *Baley Papang*, which can be seen at least 60 miles off; even the large prows arriving from the northward and eastward, make this mountain in the first instance, there being a very dangerous reef of rocks laying east of the river which extends far out to the sea. No one can, I presume, do better than follow the track of the prows, they immediately close with the shore on seeing *Baley Papang* until they are within about 8 miles from it, when the water is from 7 to 10 fathoms; they then steer parallel with the shore, until the mouth of the river is easily distinguished ; five and six fathoms water will be found within the distance of one mile from the bar, here the vessel must remain until high water. I have observed that a reef of rocks runs eastward of the river far into the sea ; this in bad weather is very dangerous and must be carefully avoided. At low water this reef is dry and extends several miles ; how many I cannot say, but further than the eye can reach. At times of high water (except in spring tides on the change or full moon) in blowing weather the surf and breakers may be distinctly seen ; in smooth water there is no appearance of a reef and in high tides, in the worst weather, nothing dangerous can be discerned. All native vessels are well acquainted with this obstacle, and therefore keep out in deep water until they descry the mountain of *Baley Papang*. After crossing the bar 10 and 12 fathoms water will be found. The ground outside and inside the bar is a stiff clay and holds an anchor well. At the mouth of the river the rise and fall of the tides is generally from 10 to 12 feet, in spring tides 14 or 15 feet. It may be observed that the tides on the change of the moon are generally somewhat higher than those at full moon, but it must be apparent the latter time affords great advantages, as at full moon vessels may pass during the night which cannot be done at other periods, besides the change is often accompanied by squally weather. The water is salt about 8 miles, but at 12 miles from the entrance, excellent water may be taken in the centre of the river at the time of ebb tides. If fresh water is wanted earlier, it will be found in a small river, on the western bank close to the immediate entrance ; this river is only known to the people of the country and the anakodas of vessels, and kept rather secret, and cannot be seen until nearly approached. There are two large trees north of the entrance; I have been shooting up it and the water is excellent. On leaving the *Coti* river in Sept. 1828 we remained at the mouth ten days, six days within the bar and four without ; the observations I had an opportunity of making, agreed with those I made on my arrival in the country. J. D.

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CELEBES.

REMARKS AT MANDHAAR.

The part of *Mandhaar* on which we landed lies about 34 deg. south latitude, and in longitude 144. 40 E. The land may be seen from the sea at the distance of 100 miles or more ; the country within a few miles of the coast being extremely mountainous. Many of the mountains are higher than any of those in Java. The interior of the country is inhabited by a wild race of men, very similar to the Diaks of Borneo and are known by the same name. Their manner of living and fondness for cutting off heads are exactly those of their opposite neighbours ; their dress is the same in every respect; but they do not bore their ears like those of Borneo and their language is altogether different. All along the coast live the Bugis and Malay settlers ; for more than 12 miles along that part of the coast where we landed are houses almost joining each other ; generally speaking all the people are miserably poor, and live in a manner that would not suit the poorest Malay in these countries. All the rice comes from *Kylie*, in paddy, a distance of 250 miles; though the quality is very inferior only the chief people can afford to eat it. In the campong where I lived there could not be less than 2000 families of which not more than 100 ate rice, and in those houses only the master, mistress and children ; none of the slaves or dependents touched it The generality of the inhabitants feed on sago of a very coarse kind, which grows on the sides of the mountains; this and plantains, with a little other fruit is all they get from the country, with the exception of cocoanuts, which are here better and in greater abundance than are to be found elsewhere. The green cocoanuts are purchased at twelve and fifteen for one fanam ; the flavour is most delicious. The old ones, in selling which most of the people subsist, are sold 300 and 350 the real of two rupees. The whole coast to the extent of more than 70 miles is studded with cocoanut trees, in many parts half a mile in depth. The principal subsistence of the people, next to sago is the shell-fish, which they take when the tides ebbs. The shore is sandy and the tide retires at least 4 miles, at which time the whole population is in motion, following the tides as it recedes, picking up crabs and various kinds of cray-fish. Each party of eight or ten persons have a small canoe in which they put the fish and when the tide flows they get into it and paddle to the houses ; fish caught with a net, is only eaten by the superior people, for although very cheap, it cannot be purchased by those who have nothing. The only articles the inhabitants are obliged to buy are tobacco and salt. The former of an inferior quality, they procure from *Kylie*, the latter from *Macassar* ; to pay for these essentials, every one in the house is engaged in making sarongs ; two people will make one sarong in a month which sells for two reals or four rupees: this is sufficient for the purchase of tobacco and salt and will give them an occasional treat of rice. The best Bugis sarongs come from this part. The good old couple with whom I lived had 14 women continually at work from day-light until eleven at night. I never saw people work so hard; with the assistance of the family, and other occasional help, they made four and five corges of sarongs in a month which sell at Singapore at drs. 40 to 50 per corge ; this I consider is amazing profit. The rajah and his family smoke opium in great quantities; however, few besides themselves can afford this expence. The rajah and his brothers, of whom there are three, are rich in gold-dust, which they will sell for nothing but opium, muskets and gunpowder; money they refuse; the quality is good. Tortoiseshell is gathered along this coast, but *Kylie* is the principal place for this article. At least 100 piculs a year is taken from these parts. I would, however, advise no European vessels to go there without she is well manned and armed, as the inhabitants are all pirates of the most desperate description. The men of *Kylie* are proverbial every where for acts of murder and piracy ; and nine-tenths of all the pirate prows sail from that country. The principal rajah at *Kylie* is named RAGA called by the people captain RAGA ; he is the brother the rajah of *Bagottan*. For the last 20 years, this man has carried on his depredations, in these seas, and has taken many Europeans whom either he murdered or landed at *Bagottan*, where several of them are up the country at this moment. This is the same individual who, some years ago, murdered Captain GRAVESSOME, at *Semerindan*, with his own hand.

From the point of *Mandhaar* to *Kylie*, including that place, there are not less than fifty rajahs, few of whom have less than ten prows, and some ninety. The rajah of *Bembowan* has more than one hundred, ninety-seven of which are now here. J. D.

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MAKASSAR.

THE ADVANTAGES OF MAKING IT A FREE PORT.

Amongst other expedients to afford to *Makassar* that portion of commerce her prominent situation in the Archipelago, together with every local advantage, seem to claim, no doubt, that of making it a free port will suggest itself to the mind of some. This being my own opinion, I will endeavour to point out some of the probable advantages of such a measure; previously, however, it may be necessary to take a cursory view of the present state of trade, and consider what circumstances may have occurred of late years, to occasion traffic, both European and native, particularly the latter, to stagnate in this harbour. There are evidently advantages and very great ones, to be found in the peculiar situation of this port; from which advantages Java and even Singapore are excluded, and when the genius and disposition of the various surrounding people are duly weighed, it would really appear that great pains had been taken to drive all prows from the place to other and more distant parts of the Archipelago; because every person who is at all acquainted with the character of the trade, particularly the Bugis (who comprise perhaps seven-tenths of the whole) must be aware they will on no account, go a long voyage if they can possibly help it. Java is considered a long voyage from the east of Borneo and the west of Celebes; Singapore much longer and more tedious, whilst that to Penang is considered to require superior prows and a more expensive equipment. Beyond that port they seldom adventure; no more than one of these voyages are performed each year; their method of navigation is so imperfect and their dread of pirates so great, that during the interval of the voyage they talk of them with terror and apprehension. Very peculiar and severe measures must have been adopted to drive such a people as it were from home, or the profit and advantage of the long trips must be uncommonly great. If the former of these, they now no longer exist, although as the progress of the information is extremely slow amongst such a people, they may not be yet aware of its discontinuance; whereas, if the latter be the case, measures must be taken to cope with those distant settlements, and contrive that the native traders shall have all their wants supplied on the same terms as they might wish for in those places, even if they should pay a little more for them; the proximity of their several abodes must give *Makassar*, so decided a preference, that Singapore or Penang must shortly be comparatively deserted excepting for the articles of arms, ammunition and such contraband traffic. No prow would have occasion to go thither, as under such regulations there would be no single commodity which at present comes from those parts that they could not procure at *Makassar*. Even Java would be less visited, as, with the exception of tobacco, brass utensils from Grissee, and perhaps a little fine sugar, I am aware of no articles, with which they could not be as well furnished at *Makassar*. It is a speculative question whether under some such regulation as I have hinted at, there would not be a considerable local trade between Java, and that place, as *Makassar* would be the grand emporium of the Eastern Archipelago; such a trade would, I doubt not, be profitable to small prows; besides the passage is short, perfectly safe, and easy. The extreme reluctance of the Bugis and other prows, to go further, would make the anakodas glad to purchase, with this small advance of freight, which indeed would be very trifling. The occupation of the island of Singapore by the British, and the policy pursued by them ever since, have caused a revolution of opinion throughout these islands; the state of trade has changed; and nearly the whole of the natives have thrown their resources, into another channel. There are perhaps no people who have more partialities for old customs and former habits than the Bugis; they all declare that they would go to Java if they could, but the advantages held out at Singapore are so great and obvious, that they could not shut their eyes to them; to such people relinquishing their old haunts, to visit a new country where they had no known agent and

were strangers to every person was no trifling sacrifice; but the first obstacles surmounted, every thing went easy. Singapore and Penang, do not take merely a few of the native prows from Java, they attract nearly the whole, and were it not for the tobacco, and Grissee articles, the ports of the latter would be almost deserted. No article produced in any part of the Archipelago, and consumed in Java, with the single exception of bees-wax, will stand a comparison or induce a moment's hesitation as to which market the prow shall proceed, as bees-wax, with the duty upon it in Java is nearly at the same price as in Singapore: they however, must have tobacco from that Island, and I know the practice of several states of Borneo, is to send to Java just as much bees-wax, as will bring back enough tobacco for a year's consumption. The whole of the productions of the Archipelago, with some few exceptions, are designed for the China or Europe markets; even such exceptions, as gold and tin, are not beneficial to Java, as these metals are sent to Bengal, Madras and Europe, via Singapore and Penang. The whole of the wants of all the people, inhabiting these islands, can be supplied from Madras, Bengal, and Europe (without any intervention of Java) via Singapore; therefore Singapore is doubtless in every point of view, the general emporium or grand mart of eastern commerce so far as affects these Islands. To compete with this market, and draw the native traffic into *Makassar*, Government ought, in my humble opinion, to throw open the port to the native trade, and as it will be useless to expect even in that event, that the Bugis and others will come unless they can sell their own goods and purchase others at a rate almost as cheap as at Singapore, all trade of every description from other countries should likewise pass free of duties. Merchants can afford to sell at Singapore, goods from England, Bengal, Madras, and other parts of India, from 35 to 50 per cent. cheaper than those living at Batavia. This cost, of course, eventually falls upon the consumers, or the people of the prows, and makes the difference very great, added to which are the import duties on their own produce, port charges and fiscal regulations, the latter of which are intolerably troublesome to the native character. All this is avoided at Singapore; so there can be little wonder at the preference given to the latter place. It may appear very hard upon Holland that she should admit into her port of *Makassar* free of duty, the produce of England and British India; but it should be recollected that such an arrangement would crowd this port with ships and prows of all nations; and when at the end of the year, the amount of revenue was looked at, perhaps the deficiency would not be great; it could not surely be much less than at present. Should *Makassar* be declared a free port, most of the English and Bengal ships will proceed thither without touching, or at least unloading their cargoes at Singapore, as they would consider the further they sailed into the heart of the trading country, the cheaper produce could be purchased at, and a better price obtained for their own goods; on the other hand, prows would not go the long passage to Singapore which take them from 25 to 40 days, when with a short run of four, or at the farthest ten days, they could as well suit themselves at *Makassar*. The trade of China would be very great as the produce of birds'-nests and bees'-wax, from the eastern coast of Borneo alone is immense; this must be provided for by the invitation of more junks. I will say nothing about the effect of such a measure on the western and other parts of *Celebes*; the resources of this rich and valuable country would be developed and brought forward to the utter astonishment of those sceptics who believe nothing except they see it. Where there is one tripang prow, there would be five, and in a very short time with common good management, *Makassar* would rise like another phœnix; literally from the ashes, for her present stagnated state of commerce is deplorable: her port is deserted, and her streets covered with grass; no man can walk through them, but with feelings of regret and sorrow; it is, however, much to be hoped that his Excellency the Commissioner at Batavia, will speedily touch the subject with a magician's wand, and declare *Makassar* a free port; two short years after which, *Makassar* may be almost expected to vie with Singapore, in commerce. Establishments will be made giving stability to the traffic; and Holland will learn that *Celebes* is a rich jewel in her Indian crown. In ten years the system will be consolidated on so firm a footing that duties may be levied without danger, particularly as about that period, they will, in all probability, be imposed at *Singapore* and *Penang*. J. D.

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MAMOODJOO
IN MANDHAAR.

Mamoodjoo, where we landed from the Sultan's prow, is a considerable campong situate on the west coast of *Celebes*. The appearance of land bears a great contrast with that part of *Borneo* I had left, the one being low and almost on a level with the sea, and the other as bold and mountainous as can be well conceived. The high land may be seen from the sea 90 or 100 miles off. On approaching the shore, lights are to be seen in all parts of the mountains, near the sea: these are from the huts or dwelling places of the Diaks. whose custom is to burn a light during the night; but from a distance, they have the appearance of stars. The interior of the country is inhabited by a race of men, in most respects similar to the Diaks of Borneo; they are called Diak, and their persons and habits of life are so much the same, as to leave little doubt of their originally being from one common stock. The small huts of these people, are seen upon the sides of the highest mountains, all along the coast; but near any considerable campong, they are more numerous. These people never build upon the plains or level ground, or indeed are even seen in the campongs, except occasionally when they bring down their sago to exchange for salt, or a few beads. In appearance they are much like the Diaks of Borneo; their persons are however smaller, and they have not that ferocious appearance, which the former cannot divest themselves of. Their few articles of dress are the same; they have the same partiality for beads, which they wear in the same manner, and even the peculiar kind of beads most in request in the interior of Borneo, are here likewise preferred; they eat hogs, monkeys, and all animals they can catch, and have the same practice of cutting off heads which may be called the distinguishing mark of a Diak. Their weapons differ but little from each other, but I did not observe the sumpit amongst them; they however use it, further towards the interior. Of the nutritive food sago, nature has supplied them abundantly; all they get beyond their own consumption they bring down to the coast together with a few cocoanuts, and exchange them for salt which is the only article they want as food. The different rajahs on the coast usually monopolize all this sago, giving in return a little salt or a few beads. The rajah of this place receives this at one fanam per cranjang or 2 fanams per picul, and sends it to *Bembowan*, and other parts of *Mandhaar* where the common price is one rupee per cranjang or 2 rupees per picul. Many of these people are so poor that they cannot afford even a quali or pot wherein to bake their sago, but use a flat stone for that purpose; but notwithstanding their miserable mode of living, and exposure on the bleak mountains, with scarcely a shelter from the rain, they are a firm handsome race of men and in symmetry equal to the Diaks of *Borneo*, many tribes of whom are models for the sculptor; beyond comparison the finest made men I have ever seen, or previously supposed to exist. These people I am convinced are not of so sanguinary a nature as their brethren over the water; at least those near the coast; further to the eastward and more inland they are of a more savage nature, which I generally observed of all inhabitants of countries abounding in diamonds or the precious metals; and here is abundance of gold of the finest quality. The territory belonging to the rajah of *Mamoodjoo* is very great, but the extent of sea coast small, perhaps not more than 25 miles. It produces nothing but sago, cocoanuts, rattans, and a few other trifling articles. The rajah has however, a large tract of country towards the S. E. which produces much gold; according to the best accounts I could procure, he yearly receives about 400 taels; but were he not so indolent, he might have five times that amount. This rajah has two brothers, each of whom has countries; one of them, whom I saw, is a shrewd man and looks better after his interests: he gets 500 taels per annum, and has seldom less than that quantity by him; whilst I was here, he acknowledged having more.

The campong of *Mamoodjoo* is large, containing at least 2500 families; there are besides several small ones, along the coast. The people are poor beyond any thing I have seen before, and the living of the best of them is infinitely worse than that of the lowest class in other

countries. Rice they say does not grow on this part of the coast, it is an article of luxury mostly brought in paddy from *Kylie*, a distance of more than 200 miles ; the quality is very inferior, and only the heads of families can afford to eat it, and of these only a few ; not more than 250 families in the campong were computed to consume rice. In the house where I lived, certainly belonging to one of the wealthiest men in the whole place, no person ate it but the master, mistress and their daughter and they were very sparing of it, just as much paddy being served out in the morning as would last the day. Occasionally a vessel comes from *Passier* or *Coti* with rice of a superior description ; the poor people, however, cannot afford to purchase it, and the rich ones will not, without it is as cheap as the paddy from *Kylie*, as the object is the price, and not the quality. All the inhabitants feed on sago of a very coarse quality ; this may be said to grow spontaneously, affording abundance of subsistence to every person however poor.

A few leagues to the south and south east of the campong of *Mamoodjoo* there are forests of the sago tree, extending as far as the eye can reach ; these are the property of rajahs who rent them to the Bugis and the principal inhabitants of the coast for a certain annual payment. These Bugis and others employ the Diaks to collect the sago for them, which gives employment to most of this tribe ; in return for their labour they receive their little wants, such as tobacco, salt, sugar, or beads ; as for the sago, it is as free to them as to the birds of the air. These sago plantations are situated in the vallies between the mountains, in swampy ground ; never upon high land ; it appears to me the most favorable situations for sago would grow paddy, and of the truth of this, I am assured by some intelligent Bugis. But the culture of paddy is too troublesome for this indolent people, who will not work ; indeed there is little occasion for them to do so, as, for common food, they prefer the sago. The age of a sago tree at its best times, is ten years, but the fruit is collected from the age of 8 years to 32 or 35, at which period it is perfectly hollow and rots away from the top downwards. A sago tree of ten years old, will be about 27 feet high, and from 5 to 8 feet girth at the bottom, and is continually yielding its crop. When the substance of the edible sago is 3 or 5 inches thick, they cut it, and this will be in two or three months, according to the quality of the ground. The oftener it is cut, the faster it grows, which is proved by those trees that are neglected, as in many of them which have not been cut for 6 months, the fruit will not be more than six or seven inches thick, whilst another tree within 30 yards, cut every two months, will have it four inches. There are several kinds of sago trees some of which do not produce fruit for the first 16 years. The sago country extends from *Mamoodjoo*, southward and eastward, but not towards the west, as at *Bembowan* not more than 80 miles in that direction, they have very little within 20 miles of the coast, as it is article of trade which employs many persons between the two places. At *Bembowan* there is more rice eaten, as the Bugis are more numerous, and of course more industrious.

The great article of trade from the point of *Mandhaar* to *Kylie*, is cocoanuts. The whole extent of country along the coast from the sea, to the mountains, is covered with cocoanut trees, which give it a beautiful appearance. Their cheapness is astonishing ; at *Mamoodjoo* they are 200 per real of two rupees, at *Kylie*, they are from 300 to 350 per real ; if they are taken in a green state they are higher. I paid one fanam for eight ; the flavour is most delicious beyond any I had before tasted. The wealth, and indeed the entire property of the poorest class of people along this coast consist of cocoanuts ; the whole of the eastern coast of *Borneo* is supplied with them, as there are few to be found there. In *Coti* a cocoanut tree with fruit is rare ; there are abundance of trees, but they seldom bear fruit.

The principal food of these people, besides sago, is the shell-fish they pick up at low water. In spring tides, which occur at the change and full moon, the tide recedes from one to three miles, (within 10 miles of this campong.) At such times, the people spread their nets upon the turn of the tides ; the whole population of the campong turn out with small canoes, into them and paddle home. What fish are caught in the nets are sold to the rajah, and the better class of Bugis ; the poor people get none, as although very cheap, they cannot afford to purchase them, and what they themselves catch, they are obliged to part with, however small the price.

The wants of the inhabitants of this part of the coast of *Celebes* are confined to the simple articles of salt and tobacco ; the former they get from *Makassar*, the latter of an inferior qua-

lity, from *Kylie*. To purchase these articles, together with an occasional meal of rice, and a little sugar, (which are only used as luxuries upon great occasions, as upon a marriage, or the birth of a child,) is the employment of their lives; and this is in the power of every one, for besides the sale of a few cocoanuts which they all have about their dwellings, the women and children of every house are employed in making sarongs; two people, my intelligent host informed me, would make a sarong in one month, which will sell for 2 reals or 4 rupees, the cotton and materials of which sarong will not cost them more than half a rupee, the remainder is profit and quite sufficient to provide for a large family, besides affording the master a rupee for gambling which they will have. The good old couple with whom I lived have 14 women in the house constantly at work on sarongs from day-light until eleven o'clock at night, and sometimes all night; I never saw people work so hard; these were all slaves.

The rajah and his brothers smoke opium in great quantities; none of these are more than 26 years of age; they are continually stupid, and will not see a stranger until time be given them to recover a little. When a prow arrived from *Macassar* with a letter to the rajah which the anakoda insisted upon personally delivering, he had to wait two days, before he could obtain an answer, during which time the rajah and his brothers were recovering sufficiently, to be sensible of the contents of the letter, and make some reply. With the exception of the rajah, his family, and the different smaller rajahs in the campong, few people smoke; they willingly would if they could afford it. The consumption of opium in *Mamoodjoo* is from five to six chests annually; the price usually paid is from 2000 to 2400 reals per chest. It is worthy of remark that the rajah and his brothers have not only considerable quantities of gold by them, (as well as the petty rajahs about him,) but they can increase the quantity with facility, and with certainty; yet not one of them will sell a single tael of gold for money. In *Mamoodjoo*, there are not less than 40 rajahs, each of whom has an extent of country in the interior; although for several reasons, they prefer living together on the coast. These countries produce gold, of which they get a sufficiency for their own wants, besides the tax they all lay upon people going into their respective countries. This varies from 10 to 12 per cent, always paid in gold. Not one of these rajahs, including the great ones, lives in any respect better than the poorest persons in the place, with the exception of eating rice and fresh-fish; they will not kill a fowl or eat the eggs, if they can sell them, (the former one fanam each, the latter 8 and 10 one fanam.) Their clothes are not better than those of their slaves; all their gold is therefore kept to purchase opium, gunpowder, muskets, swivels, and other such articles. Opium they will only purchase in quantities sufficient for a few months' consumption. but arms and ammunition, they will lay in, in any quantities, and willingly take out their lumps of gold to pay for them. The only extra articles they will occasionally take in exchange besides, are corges of blue and white cloth, which they send into their respective countries, and upon which they obtain an enormous profit. These, however, they are in a manner obliged to supply their own people with.

During my stay here, I saw the Sultan purchase 10 barrels of gunpowder from a *Passier* prow at 45 reals per barrel of half a picul; this was American powder. The usual price is from 80 to 90 reals per picul; muskets 15 reals each, and when such prices are considered, it need not be wondered at that such an extensive trade should be carried on, for on every part of this coast it is the same, and there is not a single individual who has not his connexions at *Boni* or some part of the island in the neighbourhood of *Macassar*. The Americans sell their gunpowder at the rate of 22 and 24 drs. per picul, and their muskets, drs. 7 each; what must then be their profit, when they dispose of them again at these prices, taking in return gold of the finest quality, at the rate of 23 and 25 reals per buncal, or tael, which they will sell at Singapore for drs. 30, or 78 Java rupees? One of the principal rajah's brothers told me he would within five days produce 10,000 buncals of gold, 5000 of which should be in lumps of one, two, and three catties each, if I would give in return muskets, Palembang-made cannon, gunpowder, and 5 chests of opium, and in the course of one year, he would engage any quantity (for similar articles) in pieces of five to ten catties of gold if they should be preferred to the small lumps or dust. In fact, he said, the quantum of gold which he himself and his brothers could produce would be equal to the payment of the largest importation of arms and ammunition, and the policy amongst them was bring to forward no more than what was absolutely necessary for such purchase. That such is their policy I am almost certain, and there is but little doubt that large quantities of the present gold could be procured; for particular parts of the

country abound in it. Great care is taken to keep strangers from it ; so these rajahs have only to shake off their slothful habits, and go with their people to collect it.

Although from *Mamoodjoo* there sails probably, every year, no more than 5 prows, belonging to the inhabitants, yet there are at present probably not less than 100 or 120 coyans of powder in the campong. POA BELLO has at least 10 coyans, and the rajah 40 ; besides which, every petty rajah or chief has more or less. This gunpowder is not, and cannot be used in this country of *Mamoodjoo*, as they have no occasion for it ; it is, however, sent elsewhere in the *Kylie* or *Mandhaar* prows, whilst the salt prows from the opposite coast of *Borneo* bring regularly their annual supply which, though great, is never sufficient as the high standard price indicates. Indeed, most of these rajahs consider their gold as of no other service than inasmuch as it enables them to purchase opium for their own use, and arms, ammunition &c. for the assistance of their Bugis friends, and the annoyance of their great enemies the Europeans.

This country is rich in the article of white and black birds-nests, of which beautiful specimens have been brought to the coast. The people are, however, too lazy to look after them ; the rajah says they are not acquainted with the method of taking them, and thinks the best plan would be to get people from *Coti* ; however, the Bugis will soon shew them the way to get them, when they are permitted to make the attempt. POA BELLO, with a few other intelligent Bugis are, at this time, after this very speculation. They keep the matter very secret, for several reasons ; one of which is the idea that their white neighbours at *Macassar* would take a liking to the country, should such riches be easily procurable. This secrecy pervades the whole of the people on the coast, and indeed is the principal motive and inducement for sending their gold to *Singapore* and *Penang*, knowing their situation is safe from molestation by the English ; but were they to make a parade of wealth at *Makassar*, or even *Java*, in a direct manner, they fancy the inquisitive Hollanders might make some inquiry, when they well know their riches would in a great measure vanish, as with a very little investigation, they are certain the Europeans would honor their respective territories with more attention than would be to themselves agreeable.

J. D.

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THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

We have been lately favored with a new statistical work, respecting these valuable and interesting islands compiled in 1818 & 1819 and published at Manila in 1820, and have now great satisfaction in laying before our readers an abstract of its important contents. The work in question comprises tables of population, statements of revenue, of exports and imports, and maps and descriptions of each particular province. Its execution and publication are extremely creditable to the liberal spirit which distinguished the government of the Cortes.

The Philippines are divided into 31 provinces, sixteen of which are situated in the island of Luconia and 15 in the smaller islands including the Mariannas. The total population is two millions two hundred and forty-nine thousand, eight hundred and fifty-two (2,249,852.) Of this number 1,376,422 belong to the great island of Luconia, giving about 45 inhabitants to the square mile; a rate which shews it to be much less populous than Java which has more than double this density of inhabitants. The contrast is still stronger with the British provinces in Hindoostan some of which, as will be seen by an able and original paper on the subject by Mr. Baillie in the Asiatic Researches, have a density of population as 4, 5, 6, 7 and even more to one, beyond Luconia. The next most populous island is Panay which contains 292,760 inhabitants; after which comes Zebu, which, contains 108,426; Samar 57,922; Leyte 40,623; and Negros 35,444. The Spanish establishments on the great island of Mindanao amount to 50,823, and the population of the Marianna Islands is no more than 5,349

We have now to glance at the ingredients of this population. It is composed of the following parts: European Spaniards—Creole Spaniards—Spanish Mestizos—Indian Mestizos—mahomedans of western India—negroes of the Philippines converted to christianity—Chinese converted to christianity, and unconverted Chinese, with natives of all tribes. The Europeans of all descriptions amount to no more than 2,837 or to a 793rd part of the whole population; the people of color to 6,170 and the whole Chinese to 6,201 of whom 1,569 are *christians*. The native population consists of a great number of distinct tribes; of which the most considerable are those of Luconia, called Tagala, Pampanga, Pangasihan, Ylocos and Cagayan. A large proportion of the native inhabitants have been converted to the catholic religion which is the common bond between them and the Spaniards, and the great means by which the latter, so deficient in physical strength, have been able to maintain the government of the country for so many ages. Upon the whole the inhabitants of the Philippines are the most bold and energetic of the people of the Asiatic Archipelago. The great bulk of them are of the same brown race, so widely scattered over these islands, but the Philippines have also a considerable share of the negro race.

The population of the Philippines appears, under the Spanish rule, to be increasing with considerable rapidity. In 1805 the native inhabitants, as estimated by the census for the poll tax, amounted only to 1,789,205 —in 1815 it amounted to 1,927,830. At this rate, according to the table constructed by Mr. Bridge of Cambridge, it would double itself in about 70 years. The doubling period appears much more favorable when estimated by the proportion of births to deaths according to the tables of 1818, and is no more than 45 years for the whole country. In particular provinces it is as low as 38, but in the town of Manila and the surrounding country it rises to 90. By the same table the following important facts are exhibited: the proportion of marriages to the whole population is as 1 to 93—the births as 1 to 27—and the mortality as 1 to 47—the last a result which speaks very favorably of the climate as well as the habits and condition of the people. In the town of Manila, however, we find the mortality to be as great as 1 to 27, which is again counterbalanced by several of the provinces where it is as low as 1 in 54 pointing to a degree of salubrity not inferior to some of the finest parts of Europe.

The climate of the Philippines, stretching as they do from the 9th to the 18th degree of north latitude, exhibits more variety than the other groupes of islands which lie within a few degrees of the eqator. In general their climate is sufficiently temperate, and the only serious drawback against their situation is that the principal part of the groupe comes within the latitudes of typhoons. The soil has the same character of variety as the climate, being in some

situations a primitive formation abounding in the metals, and in others a volcanic one of singular fertility. The happy geographical position of this Archipelago can escape no observer—situated as it is upon the immediate coast of China—close to Japan—connected by an unbroken chain with all the islands to the southward and westward of it, and lying in the direct route between the old and the new world.

Agreeably to the account which we have given of the climate and soil of the Philippines, they are found to produce for exportation a wider range of useful products than any of the other islands. They produce, following the printed list which is now before us—gold, sugar, sapan wood, ebony, rice, indigo, coffee, sulphur, cotton, mother-of-pearl shells, tortoise-shell, cordage, and many minor articles, such as are afforded by other parts of the Malay Archipelago and which it would be superfluous to enumerate.

The trade which is conducted is far, however, from bearing a just proportion to the capacities of the country. In 1818 the sugar exported amounted only to 14,405 piculs; the sapan wood to 18,825; the sulphur to 3,410 pls. and the indigo to no more than 3,400 quintals. The data indeed, we are aware, are taken from the returns of an ill-arranged custom-house, and are admitted by those acquainted with the subject to be greatly underrated.

The whole quantity of sugar produced from year to year, has been reckoned at 150,000 pls. and indigo at 5,000 quintals.

In 1818, the port of Manila is described in the printed returns as carrying on trade with the following places, viz. Acapulco, Kamtschatka, London, Gibraltar, three ports of France, the three British presidencies, four ports of the United States, Batavia, the Isle of France, Borneo, Sooloo, Cochinchina, Macao, Nankin, Chancheo, and Amuy in China.

The number of Spanish square-rigged vessels which cleared from the port of Manila for foreign countries in the same year was nine; the number of Portuguese four; of French five; of English seventeen; and of American ten; making in all 45 sail. Of foreign Asiatic vessels there cleared out three junks of Borneo proper, and of Chinese Junks thirteen! The value of the whole importations is stated at Sp. drs. 3,054,511 and the exportations only at Sp. drs 1,205-649, the balance no doubt being made up in bullion. The exportations are classed under the following heads, viz.

Rough produce of the country	Sp. drs.	668.827
Manufactures of do.....	,,	54.706
Articles of China and Western India	,,	482,115

We observe that the Spanish exports are stated at 551,464 Sp. drs. and the imports by Chinese junks at Sp. drs. 295,197. Of this latter trade we may remark that 11 out of the 13 junks came from the provinces of Kiang-nan and Chekian, a class of vessels that never frequent these more western ports. The coasting trade of the Philippines is carried on in small brigs and in vessels called galoras, goletas, pontines &c. Manila holds its most extensive coasting trade with the provinces of Ylocos and Pangasinan in Luconia, and with the islands of Panay and Zebu. In 1818, there cleared out from Manila, of the description of vessels above mentioned, in all 637. It may here be observed as remarkable that the whole trade of these fertile, populous, and long established countries as now stated, is little more than one half of that of the port of Singapore for the year 1824, as we hope to have it in our power to exhibit to our readers in our next number.

The revenue of the Philippines amounts to Sp. drs, 1,466,610, and is made up of such articles as the following—a poll-tax on the natives of the country, commonly called the *contribucion* amounting to Sp. drs. 701,070; a monopoly of tobacco amounting to Sp. drs. 357,288; a capitation-tax on the Chinese, amounting to the exorbitant sum of 6 drs. a head, &c. with custom-house duties, among which are included a duty on the exportation of bullion. The impolicy and unproductiveness of such a system of taxation will readily occur. There exists no land-tax, but in room of it a poll-tax, comparatively trifling in its amount, and highly unpopular in the Philippines as capitation-taxes have always been in every age and country. The subjects of the European government of Java amount to about the same number as those of the Spanish Philippines, and Java can scarcely be said to be either more fertile or more favorably situated than Luconia and its dependent islands; yet the revenue of Java, for the corresponding period quoted for the Philippines, amounted to very near ten times as much, which shews how much more skilful is the system of taxation established in that country, since it cannot be alleged that it is either more burdensome or more unpopular.

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MANILA.

The soil is, in general, a rich red mould, with a great proportion of iron, and in some districts volcanic matters; it is easily worked, and very productive; that in the immediate vicinity of Manila, and four or five miles round it, extending to that distance from the coast of the Bay, is an alluvial soil, formed by the confluence of the numerous rivers with the ocean; it is stiff, and in all respects very inferior to the other. In some parts are extensive tracts, the reservoirs of the waters from the mountains in the rainy season, which first yield an amazing supply of fish,* and then a good crop of rice or pasture for the buffaloes.

The frequent rains, and the numerous rivers and streams with which the country is everywhere intersected, adds to its extraordinary fertility: it is seldom if ever, afflicted with droughts, but is at times devastated by locusts, (perhaps once in 10 or 15 years,) and these make dreadful havoc amongst the canes. Their attacks, however, are partial, and generally take place after the rice is harvested, in December, disappearing before the rains. In 1818, nearly the whole of the canes were destroyed by them, and the Ayuntamiento of Manila expended from 60 to 80,000 dollars in *purchasing* large quantities of them, which were thrown into the sea.†

The buffalo is universally used in all field labours, for which, however, he is but poorly calculated: the slowness of his pace, and his great suffering from heat, which obliges the labourer to bathe him frequently, occasion a very considerable loss of time, which is scarcely compensated by his strength and little expense in keeping. Indeed the bullock should perhaps be, on all occasions, substituted for him, excepting only in the cultivation of rice fields. In a few districts, this is the case; but it is with reluctance that the native uses him in preference to the buffalo.

Their breed of horses is small, but very hardy: they are never used for agricultural purposes, though but few of the peasants are without one for riding, and many of them have two or three. In the province of Pampanga, (the finest tribe of Indians in the Philippines) they risk considerable sums on races! of which they are very fond.

Their plough is of the Chinese origin: it has but one handle, but no coulter or mould board, the part of the share, which is flat, and turned to one side, performing this part of the work. The common harrow is composed of five or six pieces of the stems of the thorny bamboos, which at the lower part are almost solid; these are united by a long peg of the same, passing through all the pieces: to these the hard branches or thorns are left appending, and being cut off at a short distance from the stem, form the teeth of the instrument, which, rude as it is, performs its work well, and usefully, and is seldom out of order.

For cleaning and finally pulverizing the ground, they have another harrow of Chinese origin, (or an invention of the Jesuits?) It is of wrought iron, and for simplicity and utility, it is, I think, unequalled. By means of it they can extirpate the lallang grass (andropogon caricosum), called by them cogon, and which no other instrument will perform so well, that I am acquainted with.

A hoe, like that of the West Indies, answers the purposes of a spade; and (with the basket) of a shovel. A large knife (the Malay parang), called "bolo," completes the list of their agricultural instruments. Machinery they cannot be said to possess, except a rude mill of two cylinders for cane, and another for grinding their rice, can be called such. The greater part of the rice is beaten from the husk in wooden mortars and by hand.

The rainy season commences with the S. W. monsoon, and ends in October. The rice (aquatic sorts) is planted by hand in July and August, and reaped in December. The upland rice, of which they have two varieties, is planted earlier, and comes sooner to maturity. The cane is planted in the manner called "en cannon" by the French, that is, the plant-piece is stuck diagonally into the ground; and thus, from the roots being often on the surface, the

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* The fish principally caught is called dalag, (bleunius?) This fish, common I believe to many parts of India, presents some phenomena well worth the attention of naturalists. In these extensive plains, only a few pools remain in the dry season; and after the rains, such multitudes of them are found, that they are caught with baskets only. They weigh from one to two pounds, and are from one to two feet in length: they are found in the rice fields, when these have been overflowed a few weeks, and strange to relate, in the graves and vaults of churches! when in damp situations, but with little or no water near them: this fact is related on respectable authority. The fish, though not delicate, is good, and forms a valuable article of food for the poor.

† They, very unaccountably, neglected any steps to procure the martin from Bengal or Cochinchina. This might however, have arisen from an idea, that, as in the Isle of France, the martins might have become as great a nuisance as the locusts; but surely the introduction of some species of hawk would have obviated this.

plant suffers frequently from drought, and they have seldom two crops from a piece of cane: their sugar, though clumsily manufactured, is of an excellent grain, and highly esteemed by the refiners of Europe.

The indigo plant is very fine; and though, as in all countries, a precarious crop, yet it is far from being so much so as in India: it *has* been manufactured equal to Guatemala, but in the present day is of a very inferior quality: this arises from various causes, of which the principal are ignorance in the manufacture of it, a want of capital, and spirit of enterprise. They have no tanks of masonry, the whole process being carried on in two wooden vats of a very moderate size, from which the fecula is taken once a week. It is needless to remark, that the quality of the indigo is materially injured by this alone: it is also subject to many adulterations in the hands of the mestizos, before being brought to market.

The coffee plant was almost entirely unknown about 40 years ago, a few plants only existing in the gardens about Manila. It was gradually transported from thence to the towns in the neighbourhood of the lake, where it has been since multiplied to an amazing degree by an extraordinary method. A species of civet cat with which the woods abound swallows the berries,* and these passing through the animal entire, take root, and thus the forests are filled with wild plants. This fact may be depended upon, and the major part of all the coffee exported from Manila is produced from the wild plants, and is equal or superior in flavour to that of Bourbon. The government, in 1795 or 96, made an attempt to force its cultivation in the province of Bulacan, but forgot, as one of their own officers *naivement* observes, "Que no labia compradores ni consumidores"—that there were neither consumers nor customers for it! It, of course, fell to the ground, and in the next passage of the same work, the *Indian* is partly blamed for it!

The cultivation of cotton is as yet but very partial. It is of the herbaceous species, of a very fine quality, almost equalling the Bourbon, but excessively adherent to the grain: so much so indeed, that none of the attempts to separate it from the seed by machinery have hitherto succeeded; the grains passing through the rollers, and staining the cotton. It is cleared by the natives by means of a hand-mill, very clumsy in its construction, and performing so little work, that the cleaning costs six dollars per picul.

The principal part of the cotton comes from the province of Ylocos, where large quantities of stuffs are manufactured. The brown cotton, for which a prize was offered in 1818 by the Society of Arts, grows in great quantities, and is manufactured into durable cloths and blankets. The prices of agricultural labour vary from 1 real† per day near Manila to ¾ and ½ rial in the provinces; a plough with two buffaloes and a man, 2½ rials. The workmen, like day-labourers in all countries, are often "looking for sunset;" but when allowed task work, are willing and industrious. A plough will go over rather more than a loan‡ of ground in one day,—about a quinion in three months.

Of the produce of any given cultivation, it is difficult to speak with any degree of correctness: calculations of this kind are difficult to make amongst a people labouring each for himself, and all for the wants of the day: for, unaccustomed to generalize, each gives *his own* as the average, and hence the discrepancy which every person must have remarked who has had occasion to make inquiries of this description in half civilized countries, where a main point, the value of the labourer's time, and of that of his animals, is invariably left out, as is also the difference of work for himself and for a master. The tables given at the conclusion of Comyn's work are, as far as regards the vicinity of the capital, very erroneous. They are also very deficient in many points. The following is a much nearer approximation:

A quinion of land requires four ploughings and three harrowings, say six ploughings in all.

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* This is the Viverra Musanga. See Horsfield's Zoology of Java.

† 8 Rials are a Spanish dollar.

‡ The following are the common land measures in use at Manila:

La Brasa de tierra is 8 feet 1. ⅝ English, (from a new government measure.) 10,000 of these, or a square of 100 each way, is a Quinion.

10 Balitans ..... is a Quinion. | 10 Loanes ..... a Balitan.

Hence the Quinion contain 661,511 16-144ths sq. ft. or 73,501 2-9ths sq. yds. which, taking the Bengal bigha at 1440 sq. ft. gives about 46 bigahs, or 15 acres English.

Their dry measure is as follows:

8 Chupas 1 Ganta—26 Gantas 1 Caban.

I could not procure a sight of the standard. A mean measurement of several new Gantas and Cabans (for they are all clumsily made, though sold at a government office) gave as follows:

The Caban 4633 cubic inches English. The Ganta 186,878 ditto

The mean of these two (for the first would give 18,572 to the Ganta) is thus about 186 cub. inches to a Ganta; and 4650 to the Caban, or 2 bushels and 1-6th Winchester measure.

	Ds.	Rs.
Now as 1 quinion will occupy a *hired* labourer about 90 days at 2½ rials—28 dollars 1 rial, which for six times is	168	6
Fencing 12 drs. ; grubbing, &c. 15 ; cane slips, 25 ; planting, 18 ; weeding and hoeing, 30 ; carriage, 18 ; manufacture, 45 ; pilones, &c. 12,	175	0
Cost,	343	6
Produce at a low average, 150 pilones,* saleable at 3¾ drs.	487	4
Profit,	143	6

This supposes the proprietor of the cane to be possessed of a mill, buffaloes, &c. for the wear of which no estimate is made.

The 150 pilones of sugar, each weighing about 150 lbs. gross, will produce the refiner who has purchased them, about 100 piculs of sugar, of which

	Sp. Drs.	
80 of the 1st sort, worth of 6¼ dollars,	500	0
20 do. 2d. ditto, and molasses, &c. at 3¼ drs.	75	0
	575	0
They have cost him about	487	4
Refiner's allowance on 100 pilones, Sp. Drs.	47	8

The profits of the refiner would *appear* high ; and they have been so ; but are far from what this statement appears to give, from various reasons, of which the chief are, the heavy capital sunk in buildings, interest on advances, &c. and from a want of knowledge, the enormous waste of labour in the process. A glance at this may give an idea of what trade is at these antipodes of commercial knowledge.

I have termed the process "refining ;" it should rather be called claying and sorting—and it is as clumsily managed as the ingenuity of man could well devise. The trade is principally in the hands of three or four capitalists ; advances are made by these to brokers, the provincial merchants, who annually bring their produce to the capital in small vessels,† and to the masters of coasting traders, in which the sugar-merchants have shares. These are made to a large amount, 80 to 100,000 dollars ; and as the interest of this must at least run for six months at 9 per cent. it forms a heavy item. Losses and defaulters form another, say ½ per cent. in all 5 per cent.

The pilones are delivered from November to May and June, and are received into extensive warehouses, which are provided with large court-yards and terraced roofs. Here the upper part of the pilones is cut off, and a quantity of manufactured sugar, being pressed down on the top of it, a thin layer of the river mud is put on it : this is watered from time to time, and changed once or twice, the pilone, standing on a small foot, with the small hole at its apex left open, through which the molasses slowly drain, leaving the upper and broader part of the pilone of a fine white, gradually decreasing in goodness to the bottom, where it is little more than molasses—the pilone is then cut in two ; the darker part is put by as second quality (or reboiled,) and the whiter portion as firsts, the quantity of this varying according to the quality of the sugar, the care taken in the process, the kind of mud used, &c. About two piculs of sugar from three pilones is a fair average, when these are of a good size. That from the province of Pampanga is by far the best ; it is produced from a small red cane about four feet high, and the thickness of a good walking-stick.

The sugar being thus clayed, is now to be mixed, pounded and dried. The last process is performed by laying it on small mats in the sun, on the terraces and pavements of court-yards. On the slightest appearance of rain, it must be hurried under cover, and brought out again, when this is past. So that in a manufacture of any size, when from 3 to 400 Chinese are employed at 4½ dollars per month, fully one third of their labour is expended on this operation alone. The management of the rest requires no comment. *Remarks on the Philippines Islands. Calcutta* 1828. [*Published in the Singapore Chronicle, December* 1828.]

* Pilones are large bell-shaped moulds, from 2 to 2¼ feet high, and 1¼ broad.

† Some of their voyages are most curious. One or more of the principal men in a village, sometimes 15 or 20 of them, join to build a small "parao." On this they embark with their harvest in sugar, cacao, wax, &c. &c. sell it at Manila and return to their village : there the accounts are settled, and the return cargo distributed ; after which a feast is held, and the santo duly thanked for the good markets of this year, and asked for better next. All parties then visit the vessel, which they *pull to pieces !* every man carrying a piece home with him—to take care of till next season, when they are all *sewed together* for another trip.

ISLAND OF GUAM.

The island of Guam, is situated in about 13° north latitude, and in the usual track of ships bound from South America to India and China. It is the chief of the Marian islands, discovered by Magellan in 1521.

During the ascendancy of the Spaniards in South America, Guam was a place of considerable importance, chiefly as a port of rendezvous and refreshment for the vessels which conducted the trade between Acapulco and Manila. The island is about 30 miles in length and possesses several fine bays and harbors. The best anchorage is the port of Apra situated on the west side of the island, defended from the sea by a reef of rocks ; but it is difficult to approach, and therefore seldom visited by navigators. Here, the principal town is situated, called by the Spaniards Agana. It is built in the European style, with a fort, church &c. and was, at one period, of considerable extent, but is now fallen quite into decay. The country about Apra is described as beautiful and fertile, producing abundance of vegetables, fruit &c. Goats, hogs, and black cattle, which were at first introduced by the Spaniards, are also numerous throghout the island.

About 12 miles to the northward of Apra, is the five bay of Umatac. This is the place at which vessels usually touch, it being easy of access. and free of dangers. The town or village contains about fifty huts ; and there are the remains of a small fort which is now dismantled. The church and the government house are still standing, but quite deserted and fast going to ruins. The inhabitants are extremely poor, and do not value money, in exchange for such refreshments as strangers are supplied with ; preferring articles of clothing, cutlery &c. for which they are always ready to give double their value in fowls, fruit and vegetables. The interior of the country is elevated considerably, completely covered with trees and destitute of inhabitants. Several streams of fresh water run into the sea from the highland, and the natives generally live in villages situated at the mouth of the rivers. The principal food of the inhalfitants is the bread fruit, (which grows spontaneously) and fish which is very plentiful and found in great variety. Turtle is also be had in abundance ; it is not, however, eaten by the natives and is only caught for supplying ships.

The Spaniards have, for several years, totally neglected this island ; and the governor or chief has been a native of the country, who received no salary, and was consequently nearly as poor as the the rest of his countrymen. The Government of the Philippines have, however, lately appointed a overnor to the island, but they maintain no establishment in the country, as it is no longer of any service of them, since the stoppage of their trade with South America. The island has no trade of its own, although the soil is suited to the growth of cotton and indigo, which were cultivated to a small extent, during the occupation of the Spaniards. The sugar cane, was also introduced and succeeded, but from the indolence and ignorance of the natives, no attention is now paid to the production of these commodities. The inhabitants are perfectly contented with their cocoanuts, bananas and bread fruit, and all the superfluities which they enjoy, is a liquor produced from the cocoanut ; of which they are extremely fond and often get intoxicated with it. They are all a little addicted to drunkenness, and fond of cock-fighting.

The archipelago of islands to which Guam belongs, is sometimes called the Ladrones ; the whole of them are inhabited, but if the accounts of former navigators are to be depended on, they are not so thickly peopled as when first discovered. The climate is generally healthy, and from the richness of the soil, we should think many of these islands are capable of producing most of the articles of commerce grown in the Philippines, and only require the exertions of a prudent and active government to render them possessions of some importance. This blessing we fear, they are not likely to enjoy, while under the domination of a country like Spain ; and while the government is administered by so worthy a representative of his royal master, as the present governor of Manila.

[*Published in the Singapore Chronicle, October 1826.*]

SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE
ISLAND OF BALI.

PARTICULARLY OF BALI BALILING.

The island of Bali is divided into eight states :—

1st.—BALILING, a strip of land on the north side of the island from Sang-sit in the east, to Batemun in the west, and bounded in the rear by a chain of mountains, which run east to west through the island :—thus forming a rich and fertile plain of about 30 miles in length, by 10 in breadth.

Djambarana is included in the kingdom of Baliling and lies on the western side of the island, on the shores of the straits of Bali, opposite to Banu-wangi, and divided from Baliling by a part of the chain of hills just mentioned. The two states contain a population of from 60 to 80,000 souls.

2d.—CARANG-ASSAM adjoins Baliling, on the eastern side, and includes the north-east corner of the island, running along the shore southerly, as far as Pahang-booer, in the straits of Lombock which is the principal sea-port town of the state. It is a populous country, abounds in cocoanut trees and yields a population nearly equal to that of Baliling.

3d.—KALONG-KONG adjoins Carang-assam, and runs more inland with one sea-port town, called Casamba. It is the oldest and most important state of Bali, the king of it assuming a precedence and superiority over all the states, which is acceded to in matters of form and ceremony, but by no means in business of high interest and moment. It contains a population inferior to the two former.

4th.—GIANJER lies next to Kalong Kong on the south, and extends nearly to the south-east corner of the island ; it is at present at war with Kalong Kong, and thus all intercourse is cut off between the two states. The account of its population varies, but I should think the medium would be about 10,000 souls.

5th.—BADONG follows after Gianjer, and occupies the south-east corner of the island. The state is important owing to its bay, and to its having made a commercial contract with the Netherlands Government. An agent of that Government has resided there for the last few years in order to purchase slaves, to recruit the corps of native troops engaged in the war on Java. This state produces much tobacco, of an excellent quality, and bird's-nests of a second quality, yielding a population of about 100,000 souls.

6th—BANGLI, called also TANAH BALI, the garden of Bali, is an inland state, lying between the two ranges of hills, on the north and south, and occupying a beautiful spot of table land, where the climate is cool, and the land fruitful. The population however, is small, containing to 20 or 30,000 souls.

7th.—MANG-OEI is a large state, principally inland, adjoining Badong and Bali, to the westward : it is, however, very rich and populous, containing about 150,000 souls.

8th.—TABANNAN, is another large inland district, bounded by Djambarana, and Baliling on the north and west, and by Mang-oei on the east, having only a small part of its territory on the sea-coast, where it was attempted once to have a sea-port town, but owing to the inaccessible nature of the coast, and the want of shelter for vessels, the project was abandoned. It now

derives its principal supplies of foreign articles from Balilíng and Djambarana;—the population is great, amounting to about 200,000 souls.

Thus Bali contains about 700,000 inhabitants,—which is the average of an account received from two different and independent quarters on Bali, and agrees with the same given up by a respectable Arab in Sourabaya who had resided some time in Bali to negociate affairs on behalf of the Dutch Government.

Bali has several inland lakes or reservoirs of water situated near the tops of high mountains, several thousand feet above the level of the sea. These lakes all contain fresh water, and have tides, whose rise and fall correspond to the sea. Their depths are great, but irregular: in some parts bottom has been found at 40 to 50 fathoms, and in other it is said no bottom can be got at the depth of several hundred fathoms. Some of them are long, and others round, the largest about 4 miles across, and 12 in circumference; at any rate, they contain water enough to irrigate the inhabited parts of the island with little trouble and expense; and however much water is taken from them, they never seem to decrease. These lakes form the riches of Bali; in a country, where there are no great rivers, and where the inhabitants have to depend for subsistence entirely on the irrigation of their rice fields. these lakes are indispensible, and without them it appears evident that so great a population could not be maintained. The scarcity of water otherwise at Bali is so great, and the rivers so insignificant, that persons travelling in the dry season are obliged to carry water with them, but by means of these lakes the diligent husbandman is enabled to obtain water enough for all his wants, and consequently two crops of rice are taken from the ground annually, and the price of the best is as low in some districts as one rupee per picul. The names of these lakes (called generally danoo) are as follows:—1st *Danoo Batur*, to the east, near Bangli: 2d. *Danoo Baratan*, next to it: 3d. *Danoo Bpejan*, very small; 4th. *Danoo Tambilingan*, to the west.

The government of each state seems to be monarchical and hereditary—but the authority of the prince is not of that unlimited kind that would render him entirely independent of the will of his subjects, or superior to the customs and laws of the state. The few things that have been collected respecting the present royal family of Balilíng, may be stated as follows:—About 12 years ago, the uncle of the present king, named *Gusti Moorah Gede Karang* (or great rock,) was upon the throne of Balilíng; his reign however, was unpopular, and he was murdered in an insurrection at Djambarana. He was succeeded by his son called *Dewa Pahang*, who quarrelled with his uncle, the rajah of Karang-assam, and sent a message to him saying, that if he could catch him he would drink his blood, and that his sister would also anoint her hair with the same. When the rajah of Karang assam, whose name was *Gusti Moorah Lanang*, heard of this, he sent word back, that if he could take *Dewa Pahang*, he would cut off his head, and chop him to pieces, adding that if the gods would favour him in this enterprise he would build a temple to their honor of men's bones, and cover it with human hides. Thus they went to war, and the Balilíng people prevailed, driving *Lanang* from his country, and nearly mastering the whole of Karang-assam. Till, in an unlucky hour, *Dewa Pahang*, fell in love with his sister, and seeking to commit incest with her, his people deserted him, and he was adjudged by the rajah of Kalong Kong to be given into the hands of his uncle to be dealt with as he deserved. This afforded *Lanang* an opportunity of gratifying his revenge, and having got his nephew in his power, he pretended to weep, saying, "why, my nephew, did you vow to drink my blood, and thus incite me to determine to cut off your head: but as the vow is made, I cannot break it, so receive the blow;" saying this he cut off *Dewa Pahang's* head, and chopped him in pieces, sending parts of his body to the various rajahs, in proof of what he had done. After this, he told his people, that the remaining part of the vow must now be performed, viz. to build a temple with men's bones and to cover it with human hides: in order to which, said he, "let us go to Balilíng to get them." His people, however, did not like either the proposal or the means for acquiring it, having already had a taste of the power of the Balilíng men; and so, instead of following him to the war, they deserted him in great numbers, till he was obliged again to take shelter in the woods. Here it was that he made the celebrated human sacrifice, of which little doubt can be entertained, as it is in the mouths of all ranks and classes of people. He offered on the altar of his god, fifteen persons, according to some, and fifteen kelams, (or half dozens) according to others; principally young children, whom he had decoyed or stolen away, and roasting them whole, he and his followers ate them, in their sacred place,* in order to propitiate the gods, and regain possession of his country:

* Some say he only cut out the hearts and devoured them.

this however enraged his people the more and he was obliged to fly to Sasak, part of the island of Lombock, where he now resides. This instance of offering a human sacrifice can hardly be taken as a specimen of the general practices of the Balinese, as I cannot find that it ever occurred before or since, and it excites such a general spirit of detestation among the people as shews that it was by no means congenial to their customs.

After the death of *Dewa Pahang, Anak Agoong Madi*, the brother of the present rajah, succeeded to the throne of Baliling; but his people not liking him, he was dethroned, and the present sovereign was chosen. His name is *Gedemgoorah Ratna Mingrat*; he was much neglected and overlooked in his youth, so much so that his mother was obliged to spin thread for her support, but when all the superior branches of the family were either murdered or deposed, he was brought into notice, and now bears chief sway in Baliling. He is a young man, of about 20 years of age, thin, diminutive, with a low downcast look, and a rather contemptuous sneer. He is exceedingly silent and when he does speak, which is seldom, expresses himself in such a low indistinct voice, that he can hardly be heard. He asks no questions, displays no curiosity, and appears indifferent to every thing that happens around him. Indolent in his habits, and childish in his manners, apparently sullen and morose, he does not seem likely to be an object either of affection or dread to his subjects. He employs himself more in cock and cricket fighting, than in managing the affairs of his state, and has been so given up to self-indulgence, and voluptuousness, as to induce a state of imbecility from which he will perhaps never be free. He has a number of chiefs around him, called Panawongo, who advise him in matters of moment, and, no doubt, bear the chief sway in the state; one of them called Gusti Anam, appears a man of some energy, is active in business, and has things a good deal his own way.

The revenue of the prince is derived from various sources: 1st, from customs and port duties which are farmed out to the Chinese; those at Baliling are let for about 1200 rupees annually, besides presents to the rajah and his people, which cost the Chinese nearly as much as the rent of the farm: there are also other ports, both to the east and westward, which pay altogether something more than that of Baliling. But on the whole, I should think that his revenues from the customs do not amount to much more than 3 or 4000 rupees per annum. 2d. Another source of revenue is derived from the land-tax, which is about 2 rs per acre annually, for cultivated rice-fields, nothing being charged on fields cultivated with other products; and this tax, being levied only on the score of the water necessary for irrigation, which is supposed to be the property of the sovereign. 3d. Another and more productive source of revenue arises from the per-centage taken on marriage-fees or fines. The Balinese have a singular custom of abducting their intended partners, and running away with them into the woods where they live concealed till the friends of the young man are able to compensate matters with the friends of the lady, when the couple are allowed to return and live together as man and wife. This compensation-money varies according to the rank or influence of the parties, amounting on common occasions, to 1 or 200 rupees, 20 per cent of which always falls to the king. The king's revenues are also increased in cases of divorce, when the repudiated female always becomes the property of the sovereign—for him to sell, or hire, or use, as he thinks fit. 4th. The royal revenue is also mainly replenished by deaths, when, in case of no male issue, the whole of the deceased's property with his wives and daughters, all revert to the sovereign. After paying the expences of the funeral, and allowing a proper sum for the maintenance of the parents (if any,) the king takes all—appropriates the money as he pleases, and does what he will with the women; if they are young and handsome, he uses them as concubines; if good traders, he sends them to the bazar to buy and sell, and return a certain proportion of the profits to their master,—while they support themselves from the remainder, or if he gives them rice, he expects them to work for his benefit, in weaving, spinning, cooking, or sweeping—or, as is frequently the case, he turns them out as dancing girls and prostitutes, and expecting that they should bring the reward of their prostitution, to him as they obtain them. 5th. The king also derives a revenue from culprits and malefactors whom he is allowed to use as slaves, or to sell to others for the best price they can bring. These slaves are bought by the Chinese and again disposed of to the Dutch for recruits and to any French vessels who may visit their coast.

The king and people of Baliling seem to have been little influenced, much less benefited by their intercourse with foreigners. Their buildings, style of living, furniture, or dress hardly indicate that Europeans had ever been among them. A few pictures were observed hung up in the king's room, and at the shabandar's house, a bamboo is put up for a flag staff, on which the Dutch flag is hoisted when vessels appear in port, more perhaps out of compli-

ment to Europeans, than from any professed subjection to a foreign power.—With these two exceptions, I do not see that the Balinese have borrowed any thing either good or bad from us.

The people, generally, have an open independent look, and to persons accustomed to the mildness and servility of the natives of Java, their carriage would appear rough, or indeed surly. Many of them on seeing us, would walk right up, look us full in the face, and with a bold stare, exclaim, "Oh, Hollanda!" and another who was escorting some women that belonged to the rajah, told us roughly to get out of the way, till the ladies had passed by. Further in the interior, I understand, they are more civil and quiet.

The debasing and demoralising vice of opium-smoking is much indulged by the Balinese. Near Baliling almost the whole population, are addicted to it: further in the interior many use that pernicious drug. They get it from Singapore, in Bugguese and other prows, and there being little duty on it, it is served out cheap among the people, to their certain detriment and ruin. A people naturally indolent, are thereby rendered a hundred-fold more lazy, and the few ideas of propriety or consistency they might possibly have had, are absorbed and obliterated in the fumes of opium. They become thereby lost to all feeling, insensible to every useful and noble impulse, and the very scum of the earth. Little do the manufacturers and venders of opium, whether public or private, know of the great and extensive miseries they are the means of disseminating by engaging in such business. Really every conscientious man ought to wipe his hands of it.

Intoxicating liquors, are sometimes drank by the Balinese, and the best sort of arrack called ani (anise ?) is imported from Sourabaya, for the purpose of making presents to the kings and principal chiefs, who are very fond of it. They also distil a kind of liquor for themselves, from rice, and the sugar of the areca palm, which they make frequent use of,—but from both observation and inquiry I could not ascertain, that they ever get beastly intoxicated with it.

The Balinese enjoy few of the comforts of civilized life—the satisfying of a craving appetite, and the gratification of sensual lusts, seem to afford them their chiefest pleasures. Wealth is seldom amassed in any great quantity, by the Balinese, particularly by the heathen part of the population. The man possessed of a thousand dollars would be accounted a rich man among them; indeed there seem to be few ways in which a native could amass wealth: the men never trade—those who cultivate the land, merely plough their own fields, and seldom think of employing labourers to till more than is necessary for the support of their own families; there are no manufactories in which capital could be employed, that would yield a profit, and the only way in which a Balinese could amass wealth, would be by sparing the gains made by his wife and turning them to good account. The mahometan part of the population, who kill oxen and sell the dried beef for exportation, may be in the way of scraping more money together; and the Bugguese residents in the sea-ports, and who trade to Singapore, Ceram, and other places, sometimes become wealthy, and can fit out prows, the cargo of which will amount to many thousand dollars. The Chinese who trade between Bali and Java, sometimes gain considerably, but they contrive to make their escape from the island, as soon as their property amounts to a sum sufficient to tempt the cupidity of the native chiefs. At any rate, there is little poverty felt by the Balinese, the land is so productive, the necessaries of life so cheap and the exactions so moderate, that any man almost can manage to live, and except a confirmed opium-smoker and reprobate, may easily contrive to get a moderate share of what necessaries and comforts the island will afford.

Their houses are generally small, with mud walls and thatched roofs; several of these small dwellings are built together; and the whole inclosed with a mud wall: in each enclosure, there is generally one more neat and respectable than the other huts, built of brick with carved doors, varnished windows, and painted pillars; this is probably the residence of the oldest or most important person in a family, and being rather substantial and secure, would serve for a storehouse or treasury of the household. Their houses are about 15 or 20 feet square, and 8 high, built on small terraces, 2 feet above the level of the ground; some of them open on two or more sides, and some enclosed all round. The unburnt bricks with which their walls are built, are merely pieces of clay, squeezed together by the hand, and hardened in the sun: underneath there is sometimes a foundation of rough stones and coral, but the upper part of the wall is finished with these sun dried lumps of mud. It must appear evident that such walls are not durable, and that every shower of rain must carry away some part of the materials of which they are built; the natives have found this out, and therefore make a point of covering the walls with a thatch, or with bundles of grass or bamboos—but this does not screen them so

effectually, as to prevent the middle of the wall from being thinned by the ravages of time, to the endangering of the whole. Thus broken walls, and holes in the wall, are no strange things on Bali, and the people as frequently make use of these as of the doors for ingress or egress. The door-ways of their enclosures are generally thicker and more substantial than any other parts of their buildings, being about three or four feet thick, high, with steps going up to them, and covered with a good roof above, to protect the whole from the effects of the weather. The doors themselves are small, scarcely admitting more than one person to enter at a time, and are generally carved or painted with figures in a fantastical style. The king's palace at Baliling is on the same plan, and with the exception of a new and rather elegant doorway differs little from the dwellings of the common people; indeed I have seen some, that for compactness and durability exceeded the residence of the rajah. The whole enclosure occupied by the king's palace did not seem above 200 yards square, surrounded by a wall about 12 feet high, over which none of the buildings are seen to top, so that they cannot be either extensive or lofty. The interior was undergoing some repair, when we entered it, and what with the workmen carrying mud backwards and forwards, and the late rain which made the ground sloppy, it was difficult for us to pick our way without being over our shoes in the soil. The Chinese say, that the rajah abstains from beautifying his palace out of compassion to his people, who would have to work much and without hire, in order to bring it into a state of complete repair: but I rather suspect the real cause is sheer idleness, which prevents him from superintending the work, and making himself as comfortable as he might be.

The Balinese have no gardens near their houses, and grow no culinary vegetables, either for their own use or for sale; the only garden we saw was one kept by Chinese in which were a few beds of celery and small scallions, about sufficient for one family;—now and then we might observe in the market a pumpkin or calabash, and once obtained some wild brinjals, or egg-plants for our curry,—but with these exceptions we neither saw nor heard of any kind of greens that could be used for food.

The dress of the natives is very simple and sparing, consisting merely of a sarong (or chequered cloth) round the waist, falling down to the knees, and a blue and white coarse cloth, that is sometimes either thrown over the shoulders, tied round the middle, or used for a covering at night. None of the people, great or small, male or female, are ever seen with a jacket, or any certain covering for the upper part of the body. The men when cold wrap their shoulders in their coarse cloth, and the women sometimes allow their scarfs to fall negligently over their bosoms, but more frequently they are open and exposed, and do not seem to feel the least reserve or reluctance at being gazed on by strangers. They never wear the handkerchief on the head like the Malays, but tie their hair, when long and inconvenient, with a strip of cloth, or even with a wisp of grass. The most favourite bandage for the hair, was generally a piece of list, taken from the edge of European broad cloth, and we laughed frequently to see *Gusti Anam*, a prince of the blood, and a man of chief influence about court, strutting about with a fag end of list tied round his hair, which would not be picked up by a child in England. In front, where the sarong is bound round the waist, they generally stick a small pouch made of grass or rushes, which serves them for a pocket, in which they keep their betel, tobacco, opium, and sometimes their cash. This pouch is generally a foot long and half a foot broad, and being stiff sticks out a considerable way before them, serving them for a resting place for their cloth, which sometimes hangs over it, or for their hands which they lazily fold in front, and recline on their pouch, to prevent their dangling down as they walk or stand. Each man has his crease, stuck into his girdle behind—their crease handles are generally of wood, but sometimes of ivory and, among the superior orders, tipped with gold and silver. The blades are generally manufactured on the island, and are valued according to the generations they have passed through, or the number of people they have slain. The dress of the women differs little from that of men, except that they have a finer scarf or salendong than that worn by the men, and tie their hair up much in the same way, as is usual on Java. The king's women, and female relations walk out with a profusion of jessamines in their hair, so that the whole head was whitened, and the neck covered with them, and their scarfs being of a light color, they presented altogether not an unelegant appearance. There is otherwise no apparent distinction between the dress of the high and low, and I have seen a mean man in a sarong as fine and as much interwoven with gold, as that worn by chiefs themselves. Travelling in the interior by the poor is performed generally on foot; by the rich and great on horse

back, and by royal personages in a chair. Traders wishing to transport their goods from one state to another or from the villages to market, can seldom procure coolies to carry any thing on their shoulders, at least to any distance, so that horses must be used for this purpose: they travel about 30 miles a day with large panniers on their back, and seem to go very willingly without much urging or force. A stranger might procure a supply of both saddle and pack horses, at a moderate price, if he can first obtain permission of the rajah to travel into the interior—but without that no native would dare to lend him a single beast: he should remember however, to bring saddles with him, as there are no saddles in Bali, the natives only using cushions, tied over the horses' backs, without tree or stirrups. We saw no wheeled carriages of any kind, neither could they be used in Bali, for want of bridges and proper roads.

The men in Bali employ themselves in no other labours than those connected with the cultivation of the soil. They get two crops from their ground annually, which occupies them altogether about one-fourth of their time. This done, they busy themselves about nothing but cock and cricket-fighting, gambling, opium-smoking, and sauntering from place to place, to see what they can pick up or steal. When short of money, their wives are expected to supply their wants, so that it is a common saying in Bali, that the women get money to enable their husbands to gamble and smoke. I asked a young man what he had been working at during the day, and he seemed astonished at the question, intimating that it was unusual with him to put his hand to any thing. There are a few who go out to catch fish and some even assist their wives to carry their goods to the market, when the burden is too heavy, or the distance too great for women to manage, but these are rare specimens of diligence, and rather exceptions to the general rule.

The women are sadly circumstanced and miserably ill-used in Bali: if left orphans when young, without mothers to take care of them, they become immediately the property of the rajah, to use or abuse, hire or sell as he thinks proper. When marriageable, instead of being wooed and solicited as western dames are, or bought or sold like Turkish maidens, they are ravished and stolen away, by their brutal lovers, who sometimes surprise them alone or overpower them by the way, and carry them off with dishevelled hair and tattered garments to the woods. When brought back from thence, and reconciliation is effected with enraged friends, the poor female becomes the slave of her rough lover, by a certain compensation-price being paid to her relatives. She must now work for the support of her partner, mind the house, cook the food, attend the market, carrying the wares and produce most frequently herself, and to see to it, that she brings home gain enough to support the family, and maintain the intemperance and extravagance of her husband. Added to which, she must take care of the young family, and if she has no sons, can expect no other, than if rich to be burned, and if poor to be sold and prostituted at her husband's death. Hard indeed is their lot, and severe the burden put upon them by the other sex. Would that the blessings of Christianity might but once spread their genial influence over this land, and then all such evils would cease!

There are no European settlers on Bali, except the agent of the Dutch government above alluded to, who resides at Bali Badong. Merchants and others wishing to settle could no doubt obtain leave, and some security of property might be enjoyed—but such settlers must not expect to find the natives so submissive and pliable as they are under European governments. Presuming on their strength and unaccountability, the natives would sometimes proceed to acts of insolence or even oppression which the inhabitants of a civilized country are not prepared to expect or to bear. The Chinese, Bugguese, and Mussulman traders would most likely do every thing in their power to oppose the quiet settlement of a merchant who would be a spy on their nefarious proceedings, and be likely to deprive them of some of their exorbitant gains; and in case of a party being formed against a man, in such a place as Bali, it would be in vain to look to the ruling authorities for protection or support, as they invariably go by the rule of letting the weakest go to the wall.

Several instances have been related to me of the insecurity of person and property on Bali, which may be here adduced. Five or six years ago, an English captain trading to Padang Cove having landed his goods, and trusted the Chinese shabandar there to a considerable amount, was basely murdered by him in order to avoid paying the debt. The deed was perpetrated in the following manner: a deep hole was dug in the chinaman's house close to the table, which was shut up with boards and then covered over slightly with earth: the captain was then invited, and asked to take his seat immediately over this hole and when he was half merry with liquor, the boards were drawn away, and he precipitated into the hole, where he

was instantly buried alive, and all his property secured. His people on searching for him could find no traces of his body, and went away with the idea that he was lost. The fact was however known, though no notice was taken of it by the authorities in Bali, and the shabandar afterwards came to Java, and is since dead. Last year two country-born young men visited Baliling, and sauntered up to Sungey Rajah, where there is a market: the admission to these markets is forbidden to all strangers on account of the number of half naked women buying and selling there; but these young men thoughtlessly entered and having bought a pine-apple were proceeding to cut it up when one of them was stabbed to the heart, and the other attempting to escape, was wounded in the back, of which he died in three days; they were buried in the common cemetry of the Chinese and nothing more was said about it. In February 1829 the captain of a colonial trader, had nearly lost his life at Badong, by incautiously voiding urine in a holy place, when hundreds of people set on him with drawn creases, and he only escaped by seeking shelter in the house of the Netherlands' agent there. Since that, a Dutch gentleman brought himself into great jeopardy by incautiously asking the wife of a chief with whom he was trading, to change a dollar for him, and was only saved by a cow's hide being thrown between him and the enraged mob who sought his life: the cow's hide being holy, the Balinese could not pass over it, and in the mean while the gentleman got on board of a ship. A captain of a vessel who has made 15 voyages to Bali, told me that he has had the crease frequently drawn on him, when remonstrating against their deceitful method of weighing goods, since which he has not ventured ashore without 20 armed men in his train. I have also experienced impertinent rebuffs, and insulting taunts from them which I never met with from the natives in a European colony, and have been dared and defied in a way which evidently shewed they feel themselves on their own ground. Thus security is little to be looked for in Bali, by those who come for the purposes of curiosity or trade. The same obstacles to the quiet settlement of a merchant, would operate with equal or additional force against the residence of a missionary; he would soon have the contending systems of islamism and infidelity leagued against him; few would be found to stand up as his friends and abettors, and no place of refuge would be found for him to flee to. But, on the other hand, it may be said, that a patient continuance in well-doing might eventually tend to soften even savages, and the connection of the healing art with the sacred profession would render a missionary too valuable an acquisition to the community to allow a set of reprobates readily to make away with him.

The religion professed by the Balinese is generally Hindooism, for though they differ in some respects from the Hindoos, yet there are traces enough discoverable ta prove that their faith have been derived from that people. They acknowledge Brahma as supreme, whom they speak of with high respect, and whom they suppose to be the God of fire: next to him they rank Vishnu, who is said to preside over the rivers or waters; and thirdly comes Segara, the god of the sea; "*Segara*" meaning "the sea," in the Javanese and Balinese languages. They also speak of Ram who sprung from an island at the confluence of the Jumna and Ganga; and we distinctly recognised in one of their temples an image of Ganesa, with an elephant's head and one of Doorga, standing on a bull. They have a great veneration for the cow, not eating it's flesh, nor wearing its skin, nor doing any thing to the injury of that animal; we observed also an image of a cow in one of their sacred enclosures, which seemed put there as an object of worship. Their temples are numerous; near Baliling and Sangsit we noticed upwards of a dozen sacred enclosures, in each of which there were as many little shrines or temples. These enclosures were generally from 50 to 100 feet square, surrounded with a mud wall, and mostly divided into two squares which may be called inner and outer courts. In the outer court we generally observed a pair of large waringin trees, something like the banyan, and casting a pleasant and agreeable shade all around. The second court was appropriated to the shrines of the gods which were small huts, differing in size from 6 or 8, to 9 & 12 feet square. Some were built of brick and covered with straw, and others were of wood covered with *gamooty*, a kind of black hairy substance obtained from the aren palm. Some were open, having only a slight wicker work entwined between the posts, and others were closed with little doors in front, which on opening we found contained nothing but a few offerings of fruits and flowers; and in one instance a row of images made of mud, representing the various gods of the Hindoo system. Outside the shrines we sometimes met with a couple of rude images, formed of hardened clay, which seemed put there as porters or guardians of the shrines: but all in a state of dilapidation and decay. Some of the images had lost their heads, others their arms and most of the shrines were tottering to decay, with foundations giving way, and roofs falling in,

indicative both of the indolent character of the worshippers and the very perishing materials of which they were built. The attendance on these temples seems very frequent; we observed processions on the sea-side during our stay, and arrived at one while the worshippers were inside performing their vows. An old man met us at the gate, and seemed displeased at our approach, saying the women would be alarmed, if we attempted to enter, and after trying in vain to pacify him and to assure him of our harmless intentions, we were obliged to pass on without seeing how they celebrated their worship.

The burning of widows is not uncommon in Bali, but is chiefly confined to royalty. When a king dies, the corpse is kept in the house a long time, till arrangements can be made for burning it and going through the ceremonies usual on such occasions. Among the number of his wives and concubines, ten or a dozen generally chuse to follow him, as they term it, into the other world. They are asked three several times, once before the death of the king, and twice before the ceremony takes place, whether it is their determined choice to burn, and having answered in the affirmative at any of these times, arrangements are made for carrying the deadly purpose into execution. After once expressing their willingness to become sacrifices, they are not allowed to recede but are fed with the richest viands and clothed in the finest apparel, and allowed to enjoy all sorts of worldly pleasure till the time comes. They are then brought out, and a separate pit of fire being prepared for each, they are expected to leap into it; should they however show any reluctance when at the push, a contrivance is made, by which they are tilted or rolled into the pit against their will.

A young Englishman who witnessed the ceremony of burning seven widows last year at Badong, told me, that the concourse of people to witness it was so great that he could not come very near: but he could observe the women seated on scaffolds about 10 or 12 feet high, combing their hair and apparently in a state of stupefaction, insensible to all around them. Underneath these scaffolds were a great number of firebrands stuck upright in the ground, drenched in oil and covered with sulphur and other inflammatory substances, when at the beating of the gong, these were suddenly all lighted, and in an instant, the women were precipitated into the flames, after which he neither saw nor heard any thing more of them.

Almost every year, in one or other of the states of Bali, such immolations are made, and not only at the death of a king, but when a queen dies, she also must be followed by her nurses and maids, who, if they will not consent, are plied with intoxicating drugs, till in their frenzy they comply. At the demise of rich men or priests, it is not unfrequent for one or two to follow them into the fire, and these sacrifices are so shockingly common, that little is thought of them, and no horror excited by them.

The Balinese have a few manufactures which may be noticed; every family has its loom, which is worked by the women, and employed in weaving coarse sarongs and salendongs, with cotton thread the produce of the country and intertwined with coarse gold thread, imported by the Chinese. Almost every Balinese, has one of these sarongs about him, but many may be seen with chintzes and battics, the produce of the European and Batavian markets. They also spin a great deal of cotton thread, which is exported to Java, and used by the Chinese as wicks for candles. Potteries are common in Bali, and all their earthen pots used in cooking are manufactured on the island. Their pans appear thin and well baked, and their water-ewers are of a peculiar construction, with a spout like the Javanese, but with a different kind of head piece. Their cutlery and hard-ware are good, the Balinese having a peculiar method of hardening or tempering tneir steel, by which means their creases and weapons are very sharp. They buy iron and steel from the Chinese who import it from Java, and work it up with bits of cast iron, taken from broken chinese pans, the handles of which they particularly esteem, and so incorporate it with the wrought iron and steel, as to render their weapons particularly hard. Their creases and spears are therefore good, and their common cleavers or wood-bills are so sharp, that they go through the wood in a very short time. The Balinese blacksmiths are also able to make gun-barrels, and even rifle-pieces with spiral grooves, but for the locks they are indebted to the Chinese, who import them from Java. They bore their pieces with an instrument turned by the hand, and form the grooves even, by working them on lead. Their instruments are few and simple, their forge small and worked by a pair of upright bellows, such as we find described in Raffles' Java.—Various articles of food are also manufactured by the Balinese, such as black sugar from the aren palm, which is plentiful and cheap in Bali; salt is made in great abundance at Lebran, and other places, and is very pure and white.

They construct a number of baskets about three or four feet in diameter, in the form of an inverted cone, each of which they partly fill with sand and earth, and then pour the salt water thereon. After dripping through they spread the residue on flat shallow earthen beds, about 20 feet square, and allow it to evaporate in the sun; after which they put it again into the baskets, and washing it through with salt water, and evaporating it a second time, they obtain the salt pure and white, like the best table salt. Their salt being thus both good and cheap, they make great use of it in salting beef, which they dry in the sun, and export as an article of trade to Java; but mahometans only are employed in this work, as the Balinese have an aversion to it. Their fisheries are not so abundant or profitable as those on the coast of Java, owing to the depth of water round the Balinese shores; there are still, however, some hundreds of people employed in them at each of the principal places, and sufficient is obtained for the consumption of the inhabitants near the sea coast; they go out to fish in a small thin kind of boat called by the natives jĕo-kongs, which are of such singular construction as to merit a few remarks. One that I measured was found to be about 10 feet long, only 1 foot broad, and a foot deep, but it was provided with outriggers as long as the boat itself, and extending about 4 feet from its sides. These outriggers were of hollow bamboo, so that they would not easily sink, and were attached to the boat by crooked pieces of wood, very much like the wings of a bird, or the legs of a grass-hopper. The natives call them the boat's arms and legs; and sometimes when the boat lies over in a high wind they go out on the weather outriggers to balance her and keep her in trim. The mast is composed of a light piece of bamboo, just put against the stern of the boat, by a groove cut in it, which meets another coming from the head, at right angles about the centre; the sail which is three cornered is suspended between these two bamboos, and they get on pretty fast when under weigh. They do not dare to go far out to sea in these small boats, but keep within a mile or two of the shore. The hull of the boat is hollowed out of a single tree, and the whole expense of it is not more than 10 rupees copper, or fourteen shillings English money.

The trade at the port of Baliling is carried on principally in foreign prows which visit the island from various places, the Balinese themselves having few prows, and seldom venture far from their own shores. From the great island of Ceram at the back of Amboyna, about 10 prows come every year: their time of arrival is October, and of their return in January. They bring nutmegs, tortoise-shell, a kind of medicinal bark called masoodji, very much prized by the natives of Java, and other articles common to the eastern islands. These prows are manned by able-bodied caffries brought from the coast of New Guinea who speak the Malay language in a very distinct and clear way and in a determined kind of tone, as though they had been accustomed to command rather than obey. Their prows are all tied and pinned together with wooden pins, without an iron nail about them, and when they arrive at Ceram, they pull the whole to pieces and each man carrying a plank or a beam, they store the prows up in their village, till it is time to go to sea again. Between Java & Baliling, the Chinese sail several prows, about ten of which are employed that make half a dozen voyages a year. They carry coarse cloths, chintzes, and battic handkerchiefs to Bali, and receive in return dried beef, hides and tallow, together with a portion of the masoodji bark and nutmegs brought from Ceram. Their lading generally amounts to 20 or 30,000 rupees value: the profit on the cargo from Java yields about 10 per cent. but that on the return voyage much more. Besides the Ceram and Chinese prows, Bali is also visited by Bugguese prows, a dozen of which come from Sambawa, 20 from a part of the Celebes, and 20 more from Singapore; the latter are most richly laden, and bring annually about 20 chests of opium to Baliling alone. Besides these, many more prows go to the ports of Padang and Badong, both of which have a trade superior to that of Baliling. Two or three square-rigged vessels visit the island periodically to lay in cargoes of dried beef, and cocoanut oil, besides those which touch occasionally, and some Arab vessels which come once a year with opium. Two brigs were lying in the roads of Baliling when we arrived, one of which sailed for Macassar and the other belonged to the Chinese farmer of the customs at Padang. The necessaries of life are cheap on Bali, one rupee and a half being sufficient to maintain a man comfortably a whole month. Rice on the sea coast is three rupees per picul, but further in the interior, and particularly in the district of Tabannan, it is only 1 rupee for the same quantity. Cocoanut oil may be obtained at from 4 to 6 rupees per picul, salt 1½ rupee, fat cows 4 rupees each, fresh beef 5 cents per lb: and dried beef 9 rupees per picul: horses from 15 to 20 rupees, and pigs 7 rupees per picul: hides half a rupee each: tallow 12 to 14 rupees per picul:

cocoanuts 1 rupee per 100, and duck eggs 10 rupees per 1000. The masoodji bark sells in Baliling for 20 rupees per picul, and kasoomba, a red kind of flower much used in Java for dying, fetches 20 rs. per picul. This may be obtained by the coyang if required. Bali produces several piculs of birds-nests, second sort got at Bang-lee; 100 coyangs of cocoanut oil, 1000 coyangs of rice, much black sugar, and a great quantity of excellent tobacco, for exportation. Their weights and measures are nearly the same as on Java: the picul containing 100 catties, and the coyang 30 piculs; the gantang, however, is large containing about 19 catties. The money current on Bali consists solely of Chinese pice with a hole in the centre, which have been introduced into Bali from time immemorial. They value them at half a cent, and 600 may be obtained for a silver dollar. They however put them up in hundreds and thousands; two hundred are called *satah*, and are equal to 1 rupee copper, and a thousand called *sapaku*, are valued at five rupees. Very little other coin is seen on Bali, though they would have no objection to spanish dollars, and the Chinese would know how to exchange them. Articles most in demand among them, are coarse cotton goods, chintzes, battics, opium, china basins; iron pans, steel, benjamin, sandal-wood, &c. The duties charged are 4 per cent on all sales effected, which are generally through the medium of the shahbandar, who levies 2 per cent on the seller: purchases are charged at the same rate: opium pays a duty of 4 or 5 rupees a ball, equally divided between the buyer and the seller, and besides all these dues a present is expected to be made to the shahbandar, according to the amount of trade expected to be carried on. Presents are also looked for by the rajah, if visited, and by his great men, if any business is to be done with them. The presents usually made consist of raw silk, a pound or two of which is thought not an out-of-the-way gift. There are no settled duties on inland trade, these having been paid at the out-ports; only on passing from one country to another, presents must be made to the various rajahs, to secure their favour. At the bazars, the poor people pay one pice ahead on entering, and this entitles them to trade the whole day.

The language of the Balinese differs in some respects from the Javanese, though evidently of the same family; a person acquainted with the Javanese would not have much difficulty in understanding the Balinese, and with a little practice would be able to speak it himself. In the askara, or alphabet, there is some difference in the arrangement, and the Balinese invariably omit one of the letters called *Do besar*, or the great D. In the way of marking the end of a word, the Balinese differ from the Javans, and they pronounce letters which would in Javanese be half mute, and which they call the *askara panji*. The terms of the Balinese language contain a mixture of Madurese and some Malays with the Javanese; and that spoken about the king generally resembles the *basha dalam*, "court language," or the *kawi*, "ancient language," of the Javanese. Their books are written on the palmyra-leaf, as in India, but the letters instead of being engraved with an iron stile, are cut in with the point of a knife: I saw a man transcribing a story book thus, with great difficulty, and asked him how much he could accomplish in a day, when he replied that two leaves containing altogether about as much of our's were as much as he could possibly get through. We observed various messages and letters written in the same way, and passes for vessels clearing out are also inscribed on the palmyra leaf. Their writing is clumsy and indistinct, owing to the awkwardness of the instrument, and the various slips and omissions which they make, render it difficult for a stranger to decypher their meaning. The persons acquainted with letters are few, owing to the want of places of public instruction, and those who venture to write are still fewer, because they are afraid of incurring the displeasure of the superiors if they form their letters so as to offend against their superstitious prejudices. Their books generally treat of mythological stories, and they have some collections of "*undang undang*," or laws, to which they refer, and by which they profess to govern their states. Their music is similar to the Javanese, but much inferior: of paintings we saw a few specimens, representing war-boats, sailing upon nothing, and men fighting and dancing in the air. We saw no traces of sculpture, and the few images met with in their temples were rudely moulded out of clay, and hardened a little in the sun, not calculated to endure above a very short time. They believe in magic and charms, like most barbarous nations, and applied to me while there, to write a charm for a new house that was building, in order to drive the devil away.

The soil of the island of Bali, is generally fertile and productive; in the plains a stiff loamy black soil is common, and if we may judge by the earth that had been precipitated from the tops of the hills, that in the high land is of a red clayey nature. Volcanic matter must be largely mixed up with it, for in addition to a volcano on the eastern side of the island that is

always sending up thick volumes of black smoke, the eruption at Sambawa some years ago overspread the whole island with volcanic matter: for on that occasion the ashes of the volcano fell on Bali, to more than a foot in depth. The complete choking of all vegetation was the consequence, and the people were obliged to remove the ashes as much as they could, before they could cultivate the land. No doubt some of those ashes still remain mixed up with the soil, and what in abundance was prejudicial, in a moderate proportion might be beneficial and tend to produce the great fertility on the island which at present exists. The soil is principally occupied with rice, (which is produced very fine and white,) tobacco, Indian corn, and a red flower called kasoomba, used as a dye. The supply of water for rice cultivation is abundant, and has been lately increased in Baliling, by the fall of a mountain, which opened a channel from one of the inland lakes, by which a stream of water was produced, that continually fertilizes the low country. As the water comes down from a height, the people only have to guide it skilfully, and the whole of their rice fields may be laid under water, while the superabundance may be carried off by the regular channel without fear of inundation. The high land is generally wooded; but the wood produced does not appear to be of a strong or durable kind: fruit trees are common, particularly mangoes, and a coarser sort called quinces, which were so abundant during our stay, that the poorest native could easily obtain a dozen a day, for his own consumption. Their system of husbandry is remarkably simple, and their agricultural implements of a very primitive order. Their ploughs are rude, not having a particle of iron about them, the ploughshare being formed of hard wood, which, sharpened a little at the point, makes its way tolerably through the ground. The ploughs are drawn by two oxen abreast, which the ploughman drives with one hand while he guides the plough with the other. We observed no harrows, unless a rough kind of rake might be so called; this rake was formed of four iron prongs, about half an inch thick, and about the same distance apart from each other; these were flat at the point, and seemed to be intended for the double purpose of both rake and hoe.

They have, however, a small hoe besides, about the the size and breadth of a man's hand, and this with a wood-bill, and grass-knife, seem to form the whole sum and substance of their implements of husbandry. The whole cost and worth would not certainly exceed two or three rupees. They take two crops from their land in the course of the year, having a good command of water all the year round; or sometimes they vary the crops, occupying the land with Indian corn, cotton or some other product, alternately with rice, in order not to exhaust the soil. They have no land expressly devoted to grazing, but let their cattle eat the old stubble or fresh grass of the rice fields, after the crops have been taken off; and while the rice is growing they let the cattle stray into the commons or woods and pick up what they can get by the roadside. Their breed of cattle is extremely fine, almost every one of their beasts being fat, plump, and good-looking: you seldom or ever see a poor cow in Bali: it is a breed of a much large size than the common run of cattle on Java, and is obtained from a cross of the wild cow, with the same animal. They are generally of a red colour, and all of them are white between the hind legs and about the rump, so that I do not recollect seeing one that was not white-breeched. Their horses are small, but sturdy, carrying heavy burdens across the mountains, and sometimes for a short journey bearing up under two or three hundred weight. The hills abound with tigers, particularly in the western part of the island, which makes travelling alone dangerous. Ths western hills near Java are stocked with deer, and there is an island at the mouth of the straits of Bali, called Hart's Island, where deer are said to abound; the channel between Hart's Island and Bali, is about a mile or two across, and when the deer on the island are pursued by huntsmen, or are in want of water, they may be frequently seen swimming across this channel. The natives describe their manner of swimming as singular—they keep in a row, the head buck makes the best of his way across, and the others follow, resting their heads on his back, so in succession to the last; thus the leader has to bear the weight of the whole, but when he feels himself tired, he goes behind, and leaves the second to lead the van, till he being tired, gives it up to the third, and so on. The natives burn all the grass and underwood once a year, and the deer being thus deprived of their shelter, are easily discovered and shot.

Earthquakes are not uncommon in Bali: about twelve years ago a violent shock of an earthquake was felt in Baliling which the people compare to the tossing of a vessel at sea; buildings were thrown down, heavy things were removed out of their places, and all the people felt sick with apprehension;—when suddenly one of the hills above Baliling gave way, and se-

veral immense rocks some 50 or 100 feet square were dislodged from their places, which carrying with them abundance of smaller stones, earth and water did not stop in their course till they were precipitated into the sea. This falling of the mountain, might have been occasioned partly by the earthquake, and partly by the force of the water of the upland lake, which bursting out its sides, carried rocks and ground along with it into the ocean. The whole surface of the country between the mountain and the sea, an extent of five or six miles, was thus overwhelmed in an instant in one undistinguished ruin: fields and plantations, houses, cattle, and men, were at once covered by and crushed under the falling mass, and the sea agitated by the plunging of the rocks into its, waves, burst the bounds which nature had assigned it, and came pouring over the land in return: thus were the remaining houses upon the sea-beach, which had escaped the mountain's crash, suddenly swept away by the foaming billows; the walled and tiled buildings of the Chinese were immediately overturned, and the light bamboo dwellings of the Bugguese were carried wholesale to about a gun-shot distance from the place where they once stood. Those who were crushed and drowned by the breaking out of the mountain, and the whole number of persons deprived of life on this occasion are reckoned to exceed a thousand. In the morning the country presented a most desolate prospect, and along the track of the mountain's fall, nothing appeared but a stripe of red earth which mixed with the water that had come with it, from the mountain, was so stiff and clayey, that it was hardly possible to proceed forward. We took a walk along the sea beach, and saw the rocks which had been precipitated into the sea, and some of the red earth from the mountain is still lying upon the shore; while the land whence the rocks had taken their course was still lying desolate, and being overgrown with weeds, had become the haunt of tigers.

Dearth is unknown on Bali, except when a great volcano on Sambawa sent forth its ashes and covered the whole ground to the depth of a foot; then a scarcity was the consequence. The ground could not be tilled for a considerable time, and every kind of grain being killed by the fall of ashes, they were obliged to look elsewhere for their supplies of rice; it is reported that at that time rice imported from Java, fetched as much as 6 dollars the picul. No pestilences are on record, except the cholera morbus, which raged on Bali, as well as in other parts of the east: but of all nations the Balinese seem to have devised the most singular as well as most revolting way of getting rid of it, for they caused large representations of the most abominable *lingum* to be made, about 6 or 8 feet long, painted and carved to resemble that shameful emblem as much as possible, to frighten the pestilential devil, by something more impure and revolting than they supposed the soft genius of the cholera to be. These emblems, however, being made of wood, and sometimes only of the stalk of the plantain tree, soon rotted and died away, and there are now, as far as our information went, no traces of them to be found. Sometimes mildew and worms have been known to destroy the crops:—when these are general, they are looked upon as national judgments, and public sacrifices are made to avert the evil, but when they are confined to a single field, as is frequently the case, not going over the ridge of one man's rice field, to attack another, the people then consider it as an evidence of divine wrath against the individual owner, and in order to prevent the calamity spreading any further, they take the unfortunate owner, and binding him hand and foot, throw him headlong into the sea. They have also a singular idea, when a woman is brought to bed of twins, that it is an unlucky omen, and immediately on its being known, the woman with her husband and children are obliged to go and live on the sea shore, or among the tombs, for the space of a month to purify themselves, after which they may return into the village upon a suitable sacrifice being made. Thus an evidence of fertility is considered by them unfortunate, and the poor woman and her new-born babes, are exposed to all the inclemency of the weather out of doors, just at the time when they need the most attention.

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SUMATRA.

NORTH COAST.

In furtherance of our proposal to furnish our readers from time to time with geographical notices, we intend upon the present occasion to lay before them a sketch of the north coast of Sumatra, a country commercially of considerable interest, but respecting which there is very little accurate information before the public.

Reckoning from Acheen Head to the eastern entrance of the Straits of Banca, the northern coast of Sumatra extends at least in length, 900 miles. This long line of coast is naturally divided into three portions. That which extends from the straits of Banca to the river Rakan, a distance of about 500 miles, is low and flat without a mountain in view and abounds in large rivers, while its coast is covered with considerable islands or sand-banks. This is the country of sago—of the rattan—dragon's blood and benzoin. The second division extending from the river Rakan to Diamond Point occupies a distance of about 240 miles. The coast here is also low, but less swampy than that of the last division. There are no large rivers, and no considerable islands along the coast. This is the country of black pepper. The third division extends from Diamond to Acheen points. This is a distance of about 150 miles. The coast here, exposed to the waves of the bay of Bengal, is comparatively bold and mountainous. This is probably the most abundant country in the world in the areca palm, and hence the immense quantities of betel nut which it furnishes to western India and China.

The north coast of Sumatra is nominally under five sovereigns, viz: those of Palembang—Jambie—Indragerie—Siak and Acheen, but is in fact under a great number of petty chiefs who are virtually independent. The most fertile and populous state is unquestionably that of Palembang. Near 400 years ago, a Javanese colony settled in Palembang—conquered the country, and mixed with the Malayan race, imparting to them the arts and industry of Java. The dialect of that island has mixed itself with the vernacular language, and the language of the court is still nearly a pure Javanese. Owing to this commixture with a superior race the population of Palembang is distinguished beyond the other tribes of Sumatra for its industry—its knowledge of agriculture, and its attachment to the soil. Under its native sovereigns it afforded an extensive produce in rice, tobacco, pepper, and above all in tin,—for Banca formed a portion of its territory,—and it conducted an active and large trade with the neighbouring Malayan countries and with Siam—China—Arabia, and European nations, as far as the jealousy of the latter towards each other and their shortsightedness in regard to their own interests would permit. This prosperity was impeded, but not altogether interrupted by the Dutch monopolies in pepper and tin established during the 18th century. To avenge a quarrel of the Dutch the British attacked Palembang in 1812, and wrested from the Sultan the sovereignty of Banca. The recent insurrections of the people of Palembang against the Netherland authorities are well known. They have terminated in the virtual seizure of the sovereignty by the European government and in the annihilation of the foreign trade of the kingdom, a consequence which ought not to have followed.

Jambie is but a poor and inconsiderable state. The principal inhabitants are Malays, but in the interior there is an unconverted race denominated Kubu who possess considerable industry which is employed in the collection of benzoin—dragon's blood—rattans &c. The river of Jambie has four *embouchures*, two of which are navigable for vessels of small burthen, but even in these the navigation is intricate and dangerous but without a *bore* as in many other rivers of this coast. The present capital is called Tanahpileh (chosen land) and is si-

tuated a day's voyage above old Jambie, itself 60 miles from the sea. It's population is 400, among which there are about 50 Arab families, but no Chinese or natives of the Coromandel coast. The produce of the country is dragon's blood, benzoin and rattans. The larger description of the last under the name of Jambie canes were of celebrity in the time of the *Spectator* where they will be found mentioned. Jambie, it is probable, was at one time subject to Palembang, for a few genuine Javanese words not known to the Malayan language elsewhere is to be found in their speech, and the ruins of a Hindu Javanese temple are still to be seen about four days journey inland from the old settlement. The Dutch and English East India Companies had factories in Jambie in the beginning of the 17th century for the purpose of collecting the pepper and gold which it then afforded. Almost all the disposable produce of Jambie is at present brought to Singapore which in return supplies it with Chinese and European coarse ware as well as opium and Siamese salt which is carried into the interior of Sumatra.

Indragerie is a state still smaller and less considerable than Jambie, but its territory is said to be fertile and capable of producing abundant crops of rice, of which grain considerable quantities have within the last two years been imported into Singapore. The river is large but incommoded by a dangerous *bore*. The inhabitants of Indragerie are generally genuine Malays, but on the coast are found some piratical establishments of the Lanuns of Magindanao, especially at Rittah where they settled about 30 years ago. The sultans of Johor also lay claim to some establishments on the coast—such as Gaong, and they are sovereigns of all the great islands which lie off the coast and between this and the Peninsula. Indragerie, which means in Sanskrit the mountain of Indra, is one of the few Hindu names found on the north coast of Sumatra. The frequency or paucity of such terms may be considered throughout the whole Indian Archipelago as a very good index of the relative degrees of civilization among the inhabitants of its different countries and of their respective states of improvement. Java incomparably the most cultivated country abounds with them, they are frequent in the best parts of Sumatra, and occur once or twice only in the Malayan peninsula.

The state of Siak is the largest principality of the north coast of Sumatra, but its parts hang very loosely together. It extends from Campar to Dili inclusive, being bounded by the territories of Indragerie to the south—by Menangcabao to the west, and by the Battaks and Acheen to the north. Beginning from the south, the first place of any consequence is Campar of which mention is made in the earliest Portuguese writers. The river of Campar is large but infested by a *bore*. The town called Pulo Lawan is situated a voyage of four tides up the stream. The export products of this place consist of coffee—rice—gambier—bees wax &c. This is at present one of the most flourishing Malayan establishments in the straits of Malacca, and seems to owe its prosperity to the formation of the British settlement of Singapore; since, prior to that event, it was scarcely known even by name. The quantity of coffee which the people of Campar import into Singapore encreases yearly and is at present very considerable. Some part of it is grown in the country itself, but the greater share is brought down from the mountains of Menangcabao, where it was cultivated for the first time about twelve years ago. In return for their coffee the people of Campar supply the Menangcabaoese with Siam salt, Bengal cottons and coarse China ware, all obtained at Singapore.

The next places deserving notice are the islands Rantao—Papan—Saratas, and Bancalis, partly inhabited by Malays, but chiefly by another race not yet converted to mahomedanism. Rantao, a low marshy island, produces by far the larger quantity of the raw sago which is imported into Malacca and Singapore, for the manufacture of pearl sago, and has become, within the last few years, so large and important an article of export to Europe. The unconverted race now mentioned, and not the Malays, are the sole cultivators and preparers of the sago.

The town of Siak is situated upon the largest river of Sumatra, about sixty five miles up and on its right bank. The place is small containing no more than 300 houses and the government is bad and oppressive. In better times it conducted a respectable trade with Java, the Bugis and the Chuliahs of the Coromandel coast—exporting among other articles, gold to the value of from 130 to 140,000 Spanish dollars. The population of all Malayan states, it may be observed, is at most not worse than stationary; but their history is made up of wonderful alternations of prosperity and misery, all to be ascribed to the wretched and despotic character of their governments. Every thing depends upon the reigning prince or dynasty. An arbitrary ruler destroys the industry and commerce of the country and reduces it to a state of anarchy in a very few years, and one of fair character, moderation and intelligence can restore it to prosperity in a period equally short, so favorable are the circumstances and capabilities of these regions.

At Bu'it Batu, a place on the main of Sumatra within the strait formed by the island of Bancalis, exists an extensive fishery well known in this part of the world. The fish which is the object of it, is called in the Malayan language *trubu*. The fish itself is sufficiently known in all the neighbouring seas but found with a roe only here, which makes it certain that it repairs to this favored place for the purpose of spawning. The *trubu*, about a cubit long is taken in 3 and 4 fathoms water on a mud bank. About 300 boats are engaged at all seasons in the fishery with the exception of 4 days during dead neap tides. The roes are an article of trade seaways, and the dried fish are sent into the interior of Sumatra. The rajah of Siak draws a revenue from this fishery of 72,000 guilders yearly, receiving a certain duty upon the quantity taken. From the rate and amount of this duty it is ascertained that the quantity of fish caught yearly amounts to between fourteen and fifteen millions. It seems a little remarkable that the spirit of European monopoly never should have fastened upon so promising an object of gain. The fishery, from its peculiar nature, is probably quite inexhaustible and might unquestionably be prodigiously improved by European skill and industry, and this too not only without detriment but probably to the great improvement of the revenue of the native prince as well as the essential benefit of the surrounding population.

The great river of Rakan the *embouchure* of which is in the latitude of 2° 25' north, is rather an arm of the sea than a proper river, being many miles wide at its entrance. It contains many small places of trade, such as Tanah-puteh on the right bank, and Kubu and Rakan on the left. Passing from the Ra an river along the coast we have the settlements of Bila and Panai, with Kwalor—Asahan—Batu Bara—Sardang—Dili—Balu China, and Langkat. The four last named places are the ports at which pepper is exported. We have heard the produce of the whole estimated at between 17 and 18,000 piculs. It is probably greater. The cultivators are, as usual, not the Malays but the people of the interior, the Battaks. A similar observation may be every where made. At Jambie and Siak it is not the Malays of the coast who collect or cultivate the export products of those countries. Throughout Borneo the same observation holds good.' The maritime Malays are, in short, neither an useful nor industrious people, and upon the whole contribute more to harass and obstruct commerce than to facilitate its operations. The production and consumption of the interior of the great islands would, no doubt, be greatly augmented were the sea coasts in the occupation of any race less barbarous. The river of Dili is considerable and admits brigs of moderate size, having two fathoms depth on its bar at low water. The town is about one tide's sail up. The chief is merely a nominal dependant of Siak.

The territory of Acheen on the north coast may be said to commence from Diamond Point where the land suddenly trends to the westward. This, as already mentioned, is the coast so remarkable for its production in betel nut. The principal places of trade are the bay of Teluk Samawe, and the town of Pedir in latitude 5° 22' which last gives name among European traders to the whole coast.

The north coast of Sumatra is much more remarkable for the variety and value of its vegetable than its animal or mineral products. Few of the useful domestic animals are reared in abundance, a circumstance which may be ascribed at once to the semi-barbarism of the inhabitants and the physical unsuitableness of the country. The sheep, a stranger, is confined to Acheen. Small horses are reared in abundance in the same country, and among the Battaks, of which a considerable number are exported, but this quadruped is generally unknown in all other parts of the northern coast. The elephant found every where in the northern coast of Sumatra and of the same species which has been rendered so useful in the domestic state in Hindustan and in the countries lying to the eastward of it, is valuable only for its ivory, having never been tamed except at Acheen, a country which has borrowed more from western India than any other of the eastern archipelago. This apathy towards what is so obviously useful and convenient is an unequivocal indication of barbarism. Gold is the only metal which is found in abundance in Sumatra, and this is confined to the mountains in the interior or the vallies at their feet. The gold of Jambie and Indragerie is brought from the mountains of Menangcabao, and the little exported from Siak and Dili from the hilly countries of the Battaks. The greater part of this finds its way to the western coast to Padang, Bencoolen, Natal and other places. Tin has been found in small quantities in Jambie and Campar, far in the interior also.

We subjoin a few remarks on the distribution of the different races of inhabitants along the north side of the island of Sumatra. At Palembang, the Malayan race extends to the

south east until they meet the Sampangs on the western coast. In a north westerly direction from Palembang, the Malays occupy the whole centre of Sumatra, including Menangcabao, and the whole northern coast down to the river of Rakan. Instead of supposing, with some writers, the emigration of the Malayan race from the centre table land of Sumatra, a romantic and difficult enterprize, on the erroneous belief that the intermediate low lands were occupied by different and hostile races, we can perceive that nothing could be more natural or easy than their spread from the coast of Sumatra to the islands in the straits and across to the Peninsula itself. Their distant emigration to Borneo Proper over a space of seven degrees of latitude and twelve of longitude cannot so readily be accounted for without ascribing to this people a spirit and enterprize which they do not at present possess. Here the breadth of the island is little less than three degrees. From the river of Rakan to its northern extremity the breadth is at least one third less. Here the Malay nation is found only as scattered settlers on the sea coast. The prevailing race in the interior is the Battaks, a singular people who to a considerable knowledge of letters, of useful arts and a tolerable share of industry add, rather whimsically, a taste for human flesh, being well ascertained to indulge an occasional anthropophagism.

The promentory extending to the N. W. of Diamond Point on one side, and Cape Felix on the other, is the true country of the Achi or Achinese race, the most civilized people of Sumatra, and thro' whom mahomedanism with such arts and civilization as accompanied it were directly or indirectly communicated to the other tribes of the Archipelago. They are at present thro' long misrule and anarchy in a state of much degradation, but were destiny to favor them again with a native government of tolerable skill and energy, they would soon make a figure in the commerce of the Archipelago.

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SUMATRA.

TRADE WITH CAMPAR.

Campar is an ancient Malayan state on the east coast of Sumatra, lying between the rivers of Siak and Dancer. The mouth of the Campar river is situated in about 0° 38' N. latitude and 102° 51' E., longitude, and extends in a southerly direction a short distance inland, and then branches off to the right and left. The country on the left branch of the river is called Campar Kiri and that on right is denominated Campar Kanan, or *left* and *right* Campar.

For twelve or fourteen days journey up each branch of the river the country is described as being low and flat, and to the extent of a mile or two on each side, it is said to be in a state of tolerable cultivation. The banks of both rivers we are told, are studded with villages, but that the right branch is more populous, and the country under better cultivation. The principal productions are, rice, cocoa and betel nuts, gambier, sugar-cane and rattans. The people of Campar carry on a very considerable trade with the inhabitants of the interior, and with Singapore. The inhabitants of the central districts bring coffee and cassia, which they barter for various kinds of Indian and European manufactures which the prows take from Singapore.

The trade of Campar with this settlement is entirely in the hands of Malays, (there being no Chinese settlers there) and is carried on by means of small prows of from 50 to 200 picul's burthen, which regularly visit us monthly, in small fleets of *ten* or *twelve* prows. The numerous straits in this neighbourhood, but more particularly those near the coast of Sumatra, are said to be infested with pirates, which obliges these traders to come in fleets for mutual protection. They carry from 15 to 30 men, and are armed with two long brass guns, spears, swords, &c. which render them formidable opponents to the pirates; so much so, indeed, that they are seldom or never attacked.

The cargoes these vessels bring here consist principally of coffee, but they also bring a few piculs of gambier; bees-wax; twine, and cassia, of an inferior quality; likewise elephants' teeth; rhinoceros' horns, and a few rattans. They vary in value, according to the size of the prow, from 500 to 2,000 Spanish dollars.

These articles they very readily dispose of almost immediately on arrival, to the Chinese merchants, and receive in return blue and unbleached Madras cloths; raw-silk, and cotton; Europe shirtings, cambrics and chintzes; batick and imitation batick handkerchiefs and salendangs; camblets; lead; iron; steel; gold thread (China); Java tobacco; sticklac, &c. &c.

These prows invariably belong to the people who live near the mouth of the river, from whom the traders who visit us charter them for the voyage. For a prow of 20 piculs burthen they pay *thirty* Spanish dollars, and engage to return within two months. The principal part of the cargo belongs to the nacodah, or captain, but every one of the crew also has a small share. They usually remain here about a fortnight each trip, but as they cannot all finish their business at one time, they always wait for each other a few days, that they may all return again in company. On their arrival at Campar, after discharging their cargoes, and delivering up their prows to the owners, they immediately proceed to the disposal of their respective adventures, which they generally hawk about the country, and dispose of in small quantities at a time, and so slowly, that they are not unfrequently two or three months in getting quit of a whole cargo. They generally barter their goods for produce, and as soon as they have got a sufficient cargo collected for a prow, they immediately return with it to Singapore.

The bees'wax, ivory, rhinoceros' horns and gambier, are obtained in the country of Campar, and are to be had at all the principal villages on the banks of the river. The elephant and rhinoceros are said to be numerous; the former they procure chiefly by means of poison, and the latter by shooting. The elephant, it appears, frequently makes very destructive incursions into the plantations of sugar-canes during the night, and if he is once allowed to do so with impunity, and to retire unmolested into the forests, he is sure to repeat his visit the following night, and again commit his depredations on the same spot. Wherever the marks of these huge animals are discovered, there the Malays set their traps, which consist of a few slips of sugar-cane, hollowed out in the centre and filled with various kinds of fruits which the

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elephant is known to feed upon, which fruits are previously pounded until they become of the consistence of paste, and into which a copious dose of a very powerful mineral poison is infused. To render this dose the more palatable, the Malays wash the outside of the canes with salt and water, these animals being exceedingly partial to any thing salt. The slips of cane are placed in the ground during the day where the marks of the elephant have been discovered, and the following morning he is either found dead, or so intoxicated with the poison as to be unable to effect his escape, and is of course immediately killed. The natives also shoot the elephant with a kind of long musket which is made in the country, but they are chiefly destroyed as we have described. The rhinoceros, we are informed, they invariably shoot.

Coffee, however, as we have already observed, is their principal article of import into this settlement, which it appears is brought a very considerable distance from the interior, to the vicinity of Campar, where it is bartered for the description of goods the traders take from Singapore. This coffee we are told, is brought from the rich country of Menangcabao, the ancient seat of the Malays, and from the Limapuloh country, which are situated in the very centre of the island, and are consequently several days journey inland. It is entirely conveyed from the place of its production to Campar on men's heads, and in very small quantities at a time. The inland traders, we are informed, come down in small parties of eight or ten men, two of whom only carry about half a picul of coffee each; the remainder being laden with provisions, &c. for the support of the party on the way. Not less than 800 or 1000 piculs of this coffee are brought here by the Campar prows monthly, and as it is all conveyed from the interior in this exceedingly dilatory manner, it is evident that the population of the districts which produce it must be very great. As this coffee, likewise, is the produce of the countries in the interior, it will be seen that our trade with them, through Campar alone is not by any means very inconsiderable; for, if we suppose that 100 of these prows bringing 100 piculs of coffee each, come here annually, and that it produces 6⅔ dollars per picul, it will give us the respectable sum of 65,000 dollars as the annual amount of our trade with the Menangcabao country by this means only.

Sir Stamford Raffles made a tour into the interior of Sumatra, from Padang in 1818, which he describes as being in a state of high cultivation and thickly peopled. The following extracts from his journal of that tour, will give the reader some idea of the appearance and population of the Menangcabao country and of the commercial and political importance of Sumatra:

"From the heights of the town (Suruasa) the view stretched to the north and west, as far as the mountain Berapi and the hills adjacent; the whole country as far as the eye could distinctly trace was one continued scene of cultivation, interspersed with numerous towns and villages, shaded by the cocoa-nut and fruit trees. I may safely say that this view equalled any thing I ever saw in Java; the scenery is more majestic and grand, population equally dense, and cultivation equally rich." In another part of this interesting paper, (where he is reflecting on the probable consequences which might result from his journey) that truly enlightened and enterprising governor observes;—The discovery of an extensive population and highly agricultural country cannot fail to be interesting. On a moderate cultivation, the population within a range of fifty miles round Pageruyong, in the Menangcabao country, cannot be less than a million; by returns I received on the spot, the number seems greater. Throughout the whole of our journey I did not observe a ladang. That migratory kind of cultivation so accurately described by Mr. Marsden, and so universal near the southern coast, had long been superseded here by converting the land into regular sawahs, and the establishment of a fixed property in the soil. Manufactures are here more advanced. Menangcabao has always been famous for its kris blades; iron has been worked from time immemorial. An extensive manufactory of coarse pottery, near the lake, supplies both Padang and Bencoolen with that article. Politically, the greatest results might ensue. At no very distant date the sovereignty of Menangcabao was acknowledged over the whole of Sumatra, and its influence extended to many of the neighbouring islands; the respect still paid by all ranks to its princes amount almost to veneration. By upholding their authority, a central government may be easily re established and the numerous petty states, now disunited and barbarous, may be connected under one general system of government. The rivers that fall into the eastern archipelago may again become the high roads to and from the central capital, and Sumatra may again rise into great political importance."

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SUMATRA.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE WEST COAST OF SUMATRA FROM PULO RIHAH TO PADANG.

Principally given by the Captain of a country ship, who had followed trading on the Coast for ten years.

Vessels bound to the pepper ports on the west coast of Sumatra, generally endeavour to make Hog Island called Pulo OO, *i. e.* Cocoanut Island, by the natives ;) and from thence shape their course for whatever port they may be bound. This Island is moderately high and hilly, covered with trees, and may be seen 10 or 12 leagues in clear weather; it is thinly inhabited by emigrants from Acheen, who carry on a trade in cocoanut-oil and cocoanuts. Several small islands line its shore on both sides with sudden overfalls on several coral patches, which lie 4 or 5 miles off. As there is no inducement for a ship to approach the body of this island very close, the dangers which surround it may therefore be considered as very imperfectly known. S. E. ½ S. distant 3 or 4 leagues from its south point lie two flat islands, 2 or 3 miles in extent, between which and Hog Island is a good passage, in which no danger has as yet been discovered; nor is there any appearance of sounding when within one mile of the north side of the northernmost flat island; but with the north part of the northernmost flat island bearing W. ½ S. 1½ to 2 miles distant, and the opening between the flat island S. W. ½ W. the ship *Suffolk*, Captain T. Endicott, in 1823 past over part of a coral shoal, the rocks plainly seen under the ship's bottom, but the hurry of putting the ship in stays prevented him sounding till about, when he had 11 to 15 fathoms; but his opinion was, there could not have been more than 4 or 5 fathoms, and further towards the islands the water appeared still shoaler; in passing the eastern side of these islands they should not therefore be approached nearer than 4 or 5 miles. The passage between the flat islands and the Baniacs (called by the natives Pulo Bania, *i e.* many islands) is sometimes used and is considered free of danger by keeping nearest the former islands.

The longest of the flat islands is 96°, 50' east, or 6 miles westward of Qualla Batoo, by chronometer; their Lat. 2° 10' north.

The Cocos Islands, off the north end of Hog Island are situated in lat. 3°-2' N. and lie about 20 miles westward of Hog Island, and 28 miles westward of the north point, as I have found by repeated observation in passing them many times; they are situated S. by W. and N. by E. of each other, the southernmost being twice the size of the other, and divided by a channel about one mile wide; they are low, covered with trees, and may be seen from the deck 4 or 5 leagues. A shoal is said to extend from the islands in a S. S. E. direction 12 miles, some parts of which are dangerous, but by keeping near the north end of Hog Island the channel between it, and the Cocos may be used; but do not bring the Cocos to bear westward of north until your distance from them is at least 4 leagues. The longitude of Cocos Islands is 90° 37. E. or 1° 19.' west of Qualla Batoo, by chronometer The Cocos Islands have heretofore been considered to lie much nearer Hog Island, the difference of Long: in books of navigation, being laid down only 10 miles. Vessels therefore bound round to the north end of Hog Island and the Cocos, making the land towards night, too far to the South to see the Cocos, should be careful to keep far enough to the westward, so as not to get entangled among the shoals to the N. E. of the Cocos, as has been the case with several vessels.

Pulo Rhiah, is in lat. 4° 52' north; it is 2½ miles in circumference, and at the south-east end only ½ a mile from the main. This island is low, and may be known by an islet or low level rock, adjoining its western end, and lower than the island itself, with 21 cocoanut trees scattered over it; there is a safe passage between Pulo Rhiah and the main, with 4 to 10 fathoms sand and mud; in passing through, keep the island close on board, this being the deep side, being careful not to borrow on the main in the narrow part of the channel, where the water is shoal, and the natives say there is a rock close to the main; anchorage in 10 fathoms with Pulo Rhiah S.E. by E. to S. W. by W. distance ½ a mile, and from the village on the main where the pepper is shipped ¾ a mile. Between Pulo Rhiah and the latitude of 4° 30' north, there are several small pepper ports, as Patty, which lies near the small island of Pulo Cao, which island is in lat. 4° 48' N. and bearing S.S.E. 6 or 7 miles from Pulo Rhiah; also Lahgum Diah, Tullogoorloompang, and Rigas; the latter is situated in a small bay, rather difficult of access and would require for a stranger, a native pilot, who, however, should never be too much trusted on any part of the coast, as they have little or no knowledge of the compass, and when at any distance from the land are generally totally bewildered. At Rigas you anchor in 6 fathoms, under a small island called Ung, midway between it and the main about ½ mile from each, and are 2 and 2½ miles from Rigas, this being the only safe anchorage hereabout. Besides Pulo Ung, there are also the islands Pulo Roosum and Pulo Cap, called also Pulo Rigas, situated off this small bay, with rocky bottom and indifferent anchorage all round them.

Annalaboo, is in lat. 4 7' 30' N. It may be known by a grove of cocoanut trees situated on the point, which forms the small bay; the first point to the northward distant 11 or 12 miles (called Oujoong Booboon) is also covered with cocoanut trees, encompassed with a reef and similar soundings, but in clear weather both points will be seen at the same time, the southernmost being Annalaboo. In approaching Annalaboo, do not come under 9 or 10 fathoms until the point bears N. E. by N.; S W. of it one half mile, are two reefs of rock with breakers sometimes on them; inside of them is a channel for boats; you may anchor in 5 fathoms the other extreme of the reef W. S. W. From Ujoong Booboon to Annalaboo the coast forms a small bay about 2 miles deep; between these two places you should not come into less than 12 fathoms on account of some coral spots. From Annalaboo to Cape Felix (Oujong Rajah) about S.E. by S. the distance is 11 leagues; you may keep in any depth you please, as from Oujong Booboon you carry 20 to 30 fathoms, 5 leagues from the shore. Abreast of Oujong Tupah, which lies about half way from Annalaboo to Cape Felix. the natives say there is a coral shoal 3 fathoms and perhaps less water, about one mile off shore. Abreast of Cape Felix you will deepen to 30 fathoms 2 leagues from the shore, Cape Felix N. by E. ½ E. 1 ¼ mile the depth is 12 fathoms. About W. by S ½ S. from Cape Felix, 14 miles, the trees in sight at an elevation of 30 feet, is a 4 fathoms shoal.

Cape Felix, is in lat. 3° 34' N. It is a low point, forming a bluff of trees, when seen from the westward, appears a little higher than the rest of the coast, the whole of which is a level jungle close down the beach. If within 1½ or 2 miles of the shore, perhaps the best mark to know the cape, which otherwise is very difficult to distinguish, is a small flat house, built of mats, which appears not much higher than a boat, situated ½ to ¾ to the eastward of the cape, and generally has one or more white flags flying on it. This house is a sort of santa casa to the natives, and they hold it in great veneration. They have a tradition that a mahomedan priest, or missionary, a very holy and religious man, while upon his perigrination to propagate his religion, died of fatigue and hunger on the spot, which they consider to be thereby sanctified; and at this time, if a person has a friend or relative very sick, he makes a vow to Mahomet that if he is allowed to recover he will perform a pilgrimage to this house and hoist a white flag upon it. A small coral shoal is said by the natives to lie close in shore off this cape, almost connected with it. Being abreast of this cape and bound for Soosoo, you should keep in 27 to 30 fathoms, 2 or 3 leagues from the shore. South from Cape Felix, 12 miles, and S. 19 W. from Se Mium Point, lies a coral shore of 4 fathoms with 55 fathoms, no ground just inside of it. A little distance, say ¾ of a mile to N. W, is another shoal, with deep water between. If bound to Qualla Battoo, stand on till you see two clumps of trees, quite bluff, appearing like small islands, and about one mile asunder; these are the points of Soosoo Bay, called Pulo Ko, and Oujong Serangah, and when the easternmost clump bears N. E. ½ E. run directly for it until the houses at Qualla Battoo bear north; steer north and anchor in 20 to 23 fathoms, ½ to ¾ of a mile from the shore. If bound for Soosoo, steer

for the easternmost low clump of trees (Oujong Serangah) N. E. ½ E. till within ½ to ¾ of a mile, and anchor in from 14 to 15 fathoms, mud.

From Qualla Battoo steer out south and from Soosoo S. W. and S. W. ½ W. into about 30 fathoms, and if bound to Mingin, haul up to about E. by E. till off Mingin River, when you may anchor in 8½ to 9 fathoms, one mile off shore—the northern extremity of the cocoanut trees which surround the bazar N. E. by E. north; Tellapow point, formed of a low clump of bushy trees, similar to Pulo Kio, and appearing like an island, N. ½ E. and a point of tall arrow trees (called Mingin Point) E. S. E. Off north Tallapow point, W. ½ N. distant one mile, is a dangerous shoal which almost always breaks. Care is necessary in standing into Mingin, as a shoal with two fathoms, on some part of it, bears from the river's mouth S. W. by W. ½ W. distance two miles. When on this shoal, north Tallapow point will be in a range with a small mountain having a circular projecting top, bearing N. by E. ¾ E. and Mingin point E by S; it has 23 fathoms close to its outer edge, and 22 fathoms close to its inner edge. The lat. of Mingin is 3° 36' 45" N.—its river is quite small, a sand bar chokes up its entrance, and it is accessible to boats only after heavy rains. A coral reef fronts the place and projects out into the sea nearly a quarter of a mile.

From Mingin steer along shore to the S. E. not coming under 16 fathoms, which will bring you to Laboan Hadgie, and you may anchor within the sand island or in the roads, but be careful of a shoal with ¼ less 3 fathoms on it about a cable's length north of Laboan Hadjie sand island. This island is called by the natives Goosong. Here are two roads, called the outer and inner roads; in the outer roads you anchor in 13 to 16 fathoms, the houses at Laboan Hadjie bearing between N. E. and N. N. E. off shore ½ to ¾ of a mile; the inner roads are between Goosong and the main, the island bearing S. W., small ¼ of a mile distant. Goosong is nearly even with the water's edge, and can be distinguished at but a small distance; it has no shrubbery on it, and is merely a bank of sand; there are a number of shoals in approaching these roads, and a good look out is indispensable.

Muckie, is in lat. 3° 28' N. and may be known by a remarkable bluff point which appears with a small slope to the beach. This is the south point of the bay which is formed by this bluff and a low point covered with trees which stretches out to the S. W. If you anchor in this bay you are not more ½ than a mile from the beach in 12 to 14 fathoms. This place was destroyed by the English in 1803 or 4, and has never since revived its former consequence. There are two shoals off the southern point of this bay, yet so various and contradictory are the accounts respecting them, that it is difficult to designate their true situation; that usually assigned them is, one W. S. W. one mile, and the other S. S. W. about two miles from the southern point of Muckie bay, the former lying in 24 and the latter in 30 fathoms; whether either of these shoals is dangerous is doubtful, although some accounts say that the one bearing W. S. W. has a roller over it.

South Tallapow is in lat: 3° 22' N. and about 7 miles distant from Muckie. In this place, about mid-way, there in a island close to the shore called Pulo Sooroodung. The anchorage at south Tallapow is good, not coming under 18 fathoms with a stony point in the middle of its small bay, S 78° E.

Sama Duah may be known by a white rock situated on a point just to the northward of it, called by the natives Battoo Beliyer; between this and Tampat Tuan point, are two other pepper ports, called Eah Moodooung and Tulloo Cattapung; both easy of access.

Tampat Tuan Point, is in lat. 3° 15' N. there are two rocks above water off this point, both bearing W. ½ N. from it one called Battoo Coopeah, or Cap rock, about one cable's length from the point, and the other called Battoo Tounkat or stick rock, ½ mile from it, having 30 fathoms close to its outer side. The natives hold Tampat Tuan point in considerable veneration. They have a traditional and superstitious story, that Battoo Coopeah and Battoo Tounkat, were the cap and stick of a saint who killed an enormous serpent on this point and threw him into the sea upon this stick; upon which the stick was immediately transformed into a rock; and his cap falling off his head into the water at the same time, underwent also the same change. They pretend to show out the spot where he placed his foot, which gives the name of Tampat Tuan, (*i. e.* the footstep of a great man) at the point; and also his grave, which, by its dimensions must have been for a giant indeed. The serpent breaking into several pieces formed the Islands of Pulo Munky, Pulo Dua, Gumpoo Arras, and Pulo Cutche; a coral shoal lies nearly in the middle of this bay; here you are sheltered from N. W. winds with the point bearing W. ½ S. to W. by S.; village N. W. ¾ W. to N. N. W. ½

W. the coral shoal E. ½ S. 15 to 18 fathoms, with good anchorage, half a mile from the shore.

A dangerous shoal lies in lat. 3° 4' N. with Tampat Tuan great hill bearing N. 2° E. another shoal with three fathoms, Tampat Tuan great hill N. 18° W. and Pulo Munky, with 8 cocoanut trees, E. by N. ¾ N. it has 34 fathoms close to it. Between Tampat Tuan and Pulo Munky, the coast, excepting the two shoals already described, is pretty free from dangers, with regular soundings. In this space is included, what is commonly called Cluet, and the principal pepper ports are Qualla Assahan and Qualla Baw. Along this shore there is commonly a tremendous surf and dangerous landing, except in the native boats called sampans. The coast here for several miles is low, and woody, the mountains receding further from the shore than between Soosoo and Tampat Tuan.

Pulo Duas.—Pulo Duas consist of two small islands covered with trees, and one sandy island, to the southward of those called Gumpoo Arras. If bound here from Tampat Tuan, steer from S. S. E. to S. E. by S. keeping from 20 to 25 fathoms, until abreast of Oujong Coomoowung, to the southward of which lies Pulo Munky, having 8 trees on it; Pulo Dua islands will then be seen bearing E. by S. ½ S. distant 7 or 8 miles. After passing this point, you deepen the water quick. To the S. E. from Pulo Munky, distance one mile, is a small sand island nearly even with the water, and E. by S. from Pulo Munky; about midway between it and Oujong Gunting, is a coral shoal, which breaks in blowing weather. There are several shoals off the Pulo Duas; to clear them, keep the southernmost island E. or E. by N.; there is a safe but narrow channel between the Pulo Duas, but if you mean to go between Gumpoo Arras and the southernmost Pulo Dua be careful of a shoal which is mid-channel between them, on which are only 4½ feet; and N.E. by E. from Gumpoo Arras, three cables lengths, there is a shoal which generally breaks; with another of the same description inside of it, bearing E. by S. ¾ of mile. The passage between the two large islands is perfectly clear, with ten fathoms between them, and although narrow, is the best; but in rounding the N. E. point be careful not to come too near, as there is a spit that runs off a cable's length from it. The lat. of the great Pulo Dua islands is 2° 53' 15" N. Under this island you anchor in 13 fathoms, good ground, with the body of the large island about W.—From this you see Troumon island bearing S. E. 6¾ miles. In steering from the Pulo Duas for Troumon, keeping Oujong Coomoowung open between Pulo Duas till Troumon Island bears S., clears a dangerous shoal, which has but 9 feet on it and breaks in the N. W. monsoon; in coming down you will shoal the water gradually and close to this shoal is 8 fathoms. You may anchor against the river's mouth in 7 fathoms, or under the island, which affords good shelter, though small; a range of breakers bears from the island S. by W. distant 3½ or 4 miles; or bring Troumon Island to bear E. by S. and run for it until ½ a mile of it, then steer N. E. for the anchorage. With Troumon Island bearing E. ½ N. distant about 12 miles, and the Pulo Duas N. E. ¼ E. is a dangerous shoal, having on it in some places but ten feet, with 28 fathoms, mud all round it. The river and village of Bancoonpong are in lat. 2° 53' N. and may be known by two small islands, called Pulo Duas, about one mile to the southward of the river's mouth; there is also a mountain close to the sea, nearly as high as the others, which is formed like a saddle with the highest end to the southward, and Bancoonpong lies close under the northern end. A large ship may anchor in 15 fathoms, soft ground, about ½ a mile off shore with the entrance of the river bearing N. 22° E. where she will be well sheltered from N. W. winds. Vessels sometimes touch at this place to trade, there being a river and a village on the east side of the point. Off the village of Sebadies which lies two miles east of Pulo Duas, there is a good anchorage in 12 fathoms, one one mile from the shore, sheltered from N. W. winds. If bound into this road, and being about 3 miles off shore, in 25 fathoms, bring the village of Sebadies to bear N. by E.—steer in with this bearing and anchor in 10 or 12 fathoms, the village N. by E. 1 or 1½ mile, and Pulo Duas about W. by N. 2½ or 3 miles. Standing from this to Passage island, 25 fathoms is a good depth to observe till the island is sighted, and it may be not amiss to observe that the soundings from this are steep. Being in sight of Passage island, bring it to bear S. S. E. and steer for it; if it bears to the eastward of S. E. you will entangle yourself with the shoals that lay to the westward of it in 13 to 17 fathoms; this island, when in one with the Baniak, bears S. W. by W. ½ W. and lays in lat. 2° 21' N; there is a dangerous reef of rocks frequently breaking between the islands and the main, bearing from it E. S. E. distant 4 miles, and extending along shore to the N. E. and S. W. a considerable distance, with the island bearing S. 2½ miles, having four fathoms. There is a channel between this shoal and the main. If bound to Sinkell, steer from Passage island between S. S. E. and S. E. keeping 6 or 7 miles from the main,

till Sinkell point bears E. by N.; then you may haul in and anchor in 17 fathoms, with the mouth of the river N. E. Sinkell lays in lat. 2° 12' N. and bears from Passage island S. E. easterly five leagues; it is the first point of the coast eastward of Passage island, having a number of tall straight conspicuous trees on it.

From Sinkell steer out into 23 to 26 fathoms; and S. E ½ E. distant 10 or 11 leagues, lays an island called Pulo Lacotta, N. ½ W. from which, distant 5 or 6 miles, lays a small sandy island called Bird Island; it is in the track of 30 fathoms, and you have 45 fathoms between it and Lacotta; you may pass within ½ a mile of either island; from this you may steer E. or E. by S. for Pulo Cassang, an island of Barroos. To the southward of this island you have good anchorage in 10 fathoms, mud, bringing it to bear N. W. by W. There are two passages from Sinkell to Barroos, one in shore, keeping from 4 to 6 fathoms of shore, in which there are some dangers; the other outside it 23 to 26 fathoms; as mentioned before, between these two passages, there are several dangers, particularly the triangles. On one of those shoals the *Mary* had 2¼ fathoms with the following bearing; Pulo Brencan, N. E ¼ N.—Oujong Banong N.W. by W.—Pulo Panjang E. by S. Distant from Pulo Brencan 5 miles, and off shore 9 miles, there were 17 fathoms at half a cable's length to the southward of it. E S. E. from Pulo Brencan, 4 or 5 miles, lies Tappoos, a place of trade, where you anchor in 5 or 6 fathoms with the point bearing about S.W. by W.—There is a small reef which breaks, bearing from the point S. E. distant 4 miles.

From Tappoos to Barroos is about 8 miles; there is good passage inside of Pulo Serrang, to the N. E. of which lies Barroos; from Pulo Serrang to Stinking Island, the course is S. E. by E. 18 or 20 milest distant. From Stinking Island to Battoo Boosoo Point, the course is S. E. ½ E. distant 6 leagues and no dangers except a small shoal between Stinking Island and the point, with only 9 or 10 feet on it; it lies in 10 fathoms. Rounding this point you will see the fort and flagstaff on a small island nearest the point called Ponchong Cacheel; the English called it Tappanooly. You may pass on either side of it, having above 7 fathoms mid-channel, and anchor in 7 fathoms, a cable's length from the island, with its body bearing N. W. its lat. 1° 48' N. Mensular lies about 6 leagues S. W. of Tappanooly, forming a very fine harbour. The Sugar-loaf rock bears S. S. W. distant five leagues, which you may pass on either side, but best to the westward, as there is a shoal 4 miles to the S. E. of it which seldom breaks; the course from this to Pulo Eby, an island well in with the main is S. S. E. ½ E. distant 7 leagues; four miles from this you have from 17 to 20 fathoms; the course from this island to Zealody Island is S. by E. ½ E. The Zealodies are 4 or 5 small islands; there are several dangerous shoals about them; in passing you must not come under 23 fathoms: when distant 4 or 5 miles to the westward, one of the outermost bears from Natal fort N. W. by W. ½ W., close to which the *Betsy*, Captain Howell, had 22 fathoms. When on shore on it, the largest and outermost Zelody Island bears S. ¼ E. distant 4 leagues, the verandahs of the houses in Natal just in sight; when abreast there, Cara Hill is the point nearest the sea, being to the N.W. of Natal bay, and appears ragged, as some part of the trees have been cleared away on its summit; looking along the shore, the next hill you see close to the sea is Natal hill, not so high as Cara Cara, but longer and more even, having two conspicuous palm trees on its summit; bring the hill to bear E. by S. ½ S. and run for it, and anchor in 4½ fathoms; with Natal hill E. ¼ N.; the fort E. ¼ S. Diamond point S. by E.; Cara Cara point N. N. W. ¾ W. Tamong passage S. ¼ E. off shore 2½ miles. This is the worst roadstead on the coast.

In working do not come nearer to Cara Cara point than 3 miles, as there is a reef of rocks under water, bearing from Cara Cara Island S. W. by S. 2½ miles distant. To proceed out of the former passage for Tamong passage, steer out S. and S ½ E. to pass Diamond point in 6 or 5½ fathoms, and not without that; the broadest part of the passage is only half a mile, shoaling gradually to the point; when past the point, you will deepen gradually to 9 and 10 fathoms. If you wish to pass inside of Tamong, steer for the passage S ½ E. or S by E. and do not come under 9 fathoms, as there are two shoals laying in 7 and 8 fathoms, having only 10 to 11 feet on them, half way between Tamong and Diamond; you may anchor in Tamong passage in 7 or 8 fathoms, with the island W. N. W.; you have 6 to 8 fathoms mid-channel in the passage. From Tamong to go the inner passage to Ayer Bongy, steer along shore within 7 fathoms, soundings variable and soft till you approach Oujong Lalloo, which is the third point, counting from Tamong; to the S. W. of this point are several dangerous shoals of coral rocks, 3 or 4 miles off shore; the Prince Henry shoal bears from the outer end of Tamong, S. by E ½ E. the inner end shut in with the main, Pulo Pankal S. E. by ½ E. distant from Oujong Lalloo 4 miles;—from the Luconia shoal, having only six feet of water on it, Oujong

Lalloo, bears N. E. by E. three miles, and the body of Tamong N. by W. ½ W. 10 or 12 miles. Going this inner passage, you must not go into 7 fathoms till past the point to the southward of Oujong Lalloo, nor more than two miles from the shore. Your proper soundings, Lalloo and the two points to the southward and eastward, are 4 or 5 fathoms soft ground; when past those points you open upon Ayer Bongy bay with the inner end of Pulo Baby and the main; this passage you must pass and anchor under Baby in 7 fathoms, with Ayer Bongy flag-staff, E ½ N.; Tellore S. S. ½ E. off Baby one mile. Pulo Baby is the largest and nearest island of Ayer Bongy; its lat. 0° 12' N. by Captain Couche, 0° 11' N. In standing through this passage for this anchorage, you must keep nearest Pulo Baby, as there is a shoal of sand in the bay, dry at low water, bearing from Pulo Baby N E. one mile. There is a a reef of breakers bearing from Pulo Pankal about W. by S. ½ S. two miles distant from Pulo Tega.

To sail from Ayer Bongy to the southward, pass between Pulo Tellore and Pulo Pankal, and when clear of Pulo Tellore, steer out S. ¼ E. and S. by E. and S. S. E. to get into 24 or 25 fathoms, mud; S.E. four leagues, is a dangerous shoal, having 17 and 18 feet, mud, all round it; if any swell, the sea breaks very high on it. To go clear outside of all the shoals from CaraCara point, keep in 20 to 22 fathoms till past the Royal Bishop shoal, which bears W. ¼ N. from the centre of Natal hill, and steer down S. E. for the passage between Tamong and Pulo Battoo, keeping rather nearer the Battoo shore; you will carry in this passage regular soundings of 17 and 18 fathoms; but if nearer Oujong Lalloo, 6 or 7 miles from it, you will have overfalls from 14 to 20; there is a shoal rather out of the direct track, with four fathoms on it, with the following bearings: Pulo Battoo Island S. ½ E. to S. ½ W.; Natal hill, N. E.; Cara Cara hill, N. N. E. ½ E.; Oujong Lalloo point E by S. ¼ S.—the low trees to the southward of Natal just rising to the eye of ten feet elevation; it lies in the track of 26 fathoms.

When abreast of Ayer Bongy Island in 24 or 25 fathoms, steer along shore S. E. to E. S. E. keeping in 26 to 28 fathoms, as the Prince Henry shoal lies in the track of 23 fathoms, from which she had the following bearings:—Oujong Gadang, N. by W. ½ W. the northernmost land in sight, which makes like an island, N. W. ½ W.—the largest or middle hill on Oujong Massany, E. by S. distant off shore 4 or 5 leagues; it is two cables wide, with three fathoms on the middle, six fathoms on the tail, off Prince Henry shoal: Massany table hill, S. 78° 30' E; mount Ophir, N. 59° 38' E; extreme point W. of Oujong Gadang, N. 32° W. The *Mary*, Captain Allen, struck on a small shoal having only two fathoms, Massany table hill E. S. E.; Pulo Pankal N.N. W. ½ W.; Oujong Gadang, N. ½ E.; peak of mount Ophir N. by E. ½ E.; had 25 fathoms two cables' length outside the shoal, and 24 fathoms close to it. Oujong Massany, may be known by three remarkable hills; the middle is the largest, and is flat at top; when the middle hill is to the northward of E. you may haul in for it, and can pass within three miles of the point if necessary, but not under 17 fathoms, as a large spit runs of the point two or three miles. When up with these points, in 20 or 25 fathoms, you will see the Ticoo Islands, three in number; keep out in 25 fathoms, as there is a shoal three or four miles to the S. W. of the outer island, with 20 fathoms close to it, but not outside of 32 fathoms, as there is a shoal with the same bearings 12 miles from the outer Ticoo, close to which the *Mary*, Captain Allen, had 36 fathoms. Steer along shore to the S. E. till you rise Pulo Toojoo, not going under 40 fathoms, when past the Ticoos, as there are several shoals between them and the Priamans; one of them bears from the outer Ticoo S. E. ¼ E. 10 or 12 miles, has only 8 or 9 feet water on it, and 20 fathoms close to it. When past the Ticoos and come within 5 or 6 miles of Pulo Cassy, you must avoid the shoals off it and the Priamans by keeping in 30 to 35 fathoms, the Priamans' lat. 0° 35' S.—Being abreast of those islands in 34 to 40 fathoms, you may steer along S. E. or S. E. by E. and pass on either side of Pulo Lamah you please; there is a large reef which breaks two or three miles to the eastward of it, with 40 fathoms close to it. As you stand on for Pulo Sato, keeping in shore of it in 20 to 25 fathoms, and not under, you will rise Pulo Pisang, an island covered with trees, about three miles to the southward of Padang head; you may round it at either end, but off the north end, there is a shoal which sometimes breaks; you must keep within half a cables' length of the island to clear the shoal, and will not have more than 4 fathoms, and very little further off no more than 9 feet. The south end is a clear, safe channel, with regular soundings; the best anchorage is with the island bearing N. W., in 6 or 7 fathoms ¼ of a mile from the island. Captain Allen of the *Mary*, mentions several shoals about Pulo Toojoo, with the following bearings: Toojoo N. 3½ miles, a shoal on which a heavy sea rolls, Toojoo N. W. ½ W.; Pulo Annam S. E. by S. two miles, a shoal bore N. N. E. two miles, and appeared to be distant from Annam 4 miles; Toojoo N. W. ½ N. five miles, is a shoal; he says if a ship is coming from the westward of Toojoo, and

and not able to weather it, steer so as to give a birth of four miles; when it bears N. steer about E. and E. by S. for Anasu; pass it a mile and a half or two miles, and when it bears S. S. E. ½ E. steer to the eastward. He observes there is a strong offset, and that a ship being under Toojoo at night should steer from it E. S. E. to E. by S. on that account.

SHOALS OFF THE TICOO ISLANDS.

Outer Ticoo N. 13' W. six miles, a shoal. N. 28' W. another, five miles distant to the N. E. of the former, 1¼ mile, with two fathoms on the tail. One N. 40' W. 8 miles, from which Pulo Cassey bears S. 60' E. One S. 52' W. 3 miles with 25 fathoms on the outside. One S. 50' W. 11 to 12 miles, one about W. from Pulo Cassey, three miles with 32 fathoms, 1½ mile W. of it.

MUCKEE SHOALS.

The latest directions for the pepper ports, on the west coast of Sumatra represent the Muckee shoals as very uncertain both as it respects situation and danger; they are placed too far to the southward on the charts. On the southern one (a very dangerous shoal) are 14 feet, the south point of Muckee bay (covered with high trees) bore E. ¾ N.;—north point of Muckee bay (low land covered with cocoanut trees) N. by E. ¾ E.—Pulo Sarodong in one with south Tallapow Hill, E. by S. ¾ S.;—the vessel at anchor in the usual anchorage bore N. N. E. distant about two miles. This shoal is 2 or 3 cables' length in extent; I have seen it break and it frequently has a heavy roller on it; an English master found in one place, it is said only 10 feet. I crossed it once in a small boat and had several casts of 14 feet.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SINGAPORE CHRONICLE.

SIR,

I have often heard it expressed how much proper sailing directions for the pepper ports on the west coast of Sumatra were wanted. Of all places treated of by HORSBURGH in his celebrated work, none are so incorrectly laid down as this coast, and it is not to be wondered at, he never having examined it himself. In the way of charts of these ports, a great void has been filled up, within the last few years, by the exertions of Captain S. ASHMORE, whose surveys of the pepper ports do him much credit. No sailing directions, however, for these charts exist; at least, I could never hear of any, and I have therefore the pleasure to send you for insertion and general information, some remarks communicated by a deceased friend, which, I trust, will prove useful to many.

Yours,

T.

Pulo Rossah makes the southern entrance of the land in sight when you just clear the Surat passage, and bears about S. by E.; it is in lat. 5° 14' N. and in coasting along from the Surat passage towards it, keeping from 18 to 20 fathoms, are good soundings. The island is bold to approach, and in passing it you will have 20 fathoms soft mud at the distance of one mile. At the distance of four miles, there is a coral bank bearing N. N. W. from the centre of the island with four fathoms on it, which renders it dangerous to approach in the S. W. monsoon, if the island is not seen.

Pulo Rayah is the northernmost pepper port, and bears S. S. E. ½ E. from *Pulo Rossah*, distant eight leagues. From the observation I had at noon with a Troughton's sextant, I made it in lat. 4° 46' 56" N. It is undoubtedly placed too far to the south in Horsburgh's chart of the bay of Bengal. It is a long island of moderate height and full of trees; when seen from the offing, it appears sloping gently down towards its south end. There is a rocky islet off its west end with 18 cocoanut trees upon it. In sailing between *Pulo Rossah* and *Pulo Rayah*, 18 to 20 fathoms are good depths to preserve, distance off shore about five miles. If you are under 20 fathoms, in some places you will have rocky ground; but if you will keep in 20 fathoms, you will uniformly have soft ground. The island is bold to approach, there being 14 fathoms soft mud about a quarter of a mile from the islet from the west end. When you bring the island to bear E. S. E. you may stand boldly in for it, in gradual soundings, decreasing from 20 to 14 fathoms, within half a mile of the island. If you wish to anchor to the northward of it, stand in about E. or E. by N. and keep about a quarter of a mile from it;

anchor in 9 fathoms, the extremes of the island bearing from S. W. by W. to W. S. W.; the extreme of the coast N. N. W. ½ W.; the passage between the island and Sumatra will then be just open. This passage is very narrow; in the centre there is a coral rock with two fathoms on it; ships taking in pepper here should always be ready to slip and run through the channel in the S. W. monsoon, as the N. W. squalls are sudden and severe. You may keep within 20 yards of the island in 8 fathoms. Directly you are through, anchor in 12 fathoms soft mud. The town bears from the anchorage E. N. E. about one mile; however, in that direction you will see a few houses, and going close on shore you will see the river. Great caution must be taken of the surf, as it is very high in the S. W. monsoon.

From *Pulo Rayah to Analaboo* in lat. 4° 09. N. the coast extends about S. E. ½ E., and from ten to twelve fathoms are good depths to preserve the whole way. By coasting along in these soundings about four or five miles off shore, you will not mistake *Analaboo*, as the north point of its bay is totally covered with cocoanut trees, and stretches a good way out to the southward. There is a point of land to the northward of *Analaboo* distance about six miles called *Bubon point*, which is very like *Analaboo point*, when seen at a distance; but upon nearing it, the mistake will be evident, as there are no cocoanut trees on its outer extremes like *Analaboo*. In sailing between the point and *Analaboo*, it is not safe to go under ten fathoms, as there is a coral reef upon which the sea breaks sometimes, bearing about W. S. W. from *Analaboo point*, about two miles in the offing. After bringing the point to bear N. E. you may steer in E. N. E. decreasing your soundings very regularly to five or six fathoms, when you may anchor, the point bearing west a good mile; you will see the town where the rajah resides and where provisions can be procured in great abundance and very cheap.

From *Analaboo* to *Cape Felix* in lat. 3° 48' N. the coast extends S. E. and is clear of danger; from six to ten fathoms are good soundings to preserve the whole way; all soft mud; distance from the shore three or four miles. All these parts of the coast is covered with jungle down to the beach, and *Cape Felix* forms a round bluff point of trees rather higher than the rest. It cannot be mistaken, as the land takes an easterly direction into the bay of *Soosoo*.

Quallo Battoo is the next pepper port from *Analaboo*, and caution is requisite in running into it on account of several dangerous coral reefs near it. After having coasted as above, in from six to ten fathoms to *Cape Felix*, and upon bringing that cape northward of east you will quickly deepen to 27 and 50 fathoms mud. Upon getting these soundings, steer E. by S. and E. S. E. or even E. ½ S. keeping in 26 fathoms about five miles from the land until you see *Pulo Kyo*, which is a bluff round point covered with trees, not unlike a ball when seen from the offing, and if you steer as above directed, you will make it plain, bearing E. N. E. There is another mark for knowing *Pulo Kyo*; upon nearing the eastern shore, steering as above, you will perceive a beautiful verdant lawn, a little inland about due east of you. Stretching down to the southward, *Pulo Kyo* will be about in one with the extremes of this land; you will also see the village of *Quallo Battoo* distinctly, as it is built close to the beach, upon both sides of the river, bearing about N. N. E. When you see this village, continue to stand in to the eastward until it bears due north, when it will be necessary to steer a direct course for the village, and anchor about a mile from the river's mouth in 20 fathoms soft mud, with the village bearing N. by E. in 19 fathoms. Steering due north from *Quallo Battoo* you will go in mid-channel between the coral reef in the offing, and the shoal to the W. S. W. of *Pulo Kyo*; as the sea generally breaks on the shoals in the offing, they are easily avoided by observing the above remarks; but the small shoal, W. S. W. of *Pulo Kyo*, is very much in the way, and has only 11 feet of water on it. *Quallo Battoo* bears from it N. N. W. ¼ W. and *Pulo Kyo* N. E. by E. ½ E. distance half a mile.

Minghin in lat. 3° 35' N. is the next pepper port, and its point, which is to the northward of the village, bears from the anchorage of *Quallo Battoo* about S. E. ½ E. distance three leagues. Steer out from *Quallo Battoo* due north until *Pulo Kyo* bears N. E.; you may then steer S. E. by S. and S. by E. keeping about four miles off shore, in soundings from 22 to 25 fathoms until abreast of *Minghin point*, when you will see the houses of the village bearing about east. With that bearing, you may steer in about E. S. E. and anchor in ten fathoms mud, with the village bearing N. E. distance two miles. With the village bearing N. E. by E. ½ E. in 25 fathoms, there is a coral shoal with no less than four fathoms. When it blows severely from the westward, the Malays informed me, the sea broke furiously on it. I passed over it, but the water was smooth at the time. In running from *Minghin* you may also keep

steering out in the offing in 30 fathoms until the village bears N. E.

Laboan Haji, is the next pepper port, and is distant from *Minghin* about 3 leagues. From *Minghin* you may keep along shore in 12 and 13 fathoms, distance from the land about two miles, and steering about S. E. and S. E. by E. from *Laboan Haji*. About half way between *Minghin* there is a point of tall trees, after passing which you will find it necessary to haul in E S. E. you will then keep in 15 or 16 fathoms when you see the houses bearing about east, and from which projects a long sloping point with breakers on it. You may then anchor with the village bearing N. E. in 13 fathoms about a mile from the low point, and a shoal with breakers upon it, and sometimes only a roller, bearing S. E. by S. ½ S.—There is a coral bank in 30 fathoms with five fathoms on it, bearing W by S. ½ S. from *Laboan Haji* village, distance about two miles.

Muckee in lat. 3° 23′ N 6 or 7 miles from *Laboan Haji*, may be known by a low point which projects to the W. S. W. of the village, and a singular bluff point which is the south point of the bay and has a small slope towards the sea. Between *Laboan Haji* and *Muckee*, there are no soundings four miles off shore; so, it is necessary to keep along shore not nearer than three miles, until you see *Muckee* village bearing N. E. when you may steer in and anchor in 9 fathoms, a quarter of a mile of shore, with *Muckee point* bearing west to W. N. W.

[*Published in the Singapore Chronicle, March* 1832.]

MENANGCABOW.

The following hasty sketch of the constitution of the Menangcabow government has reference to the Padrie disturbances which have existed for some time in the interior of Sumatra. We have every reason to believe that the statement may be relied upon as authentic.

The people under the designation of Padries are called by the natives, Bangsa or Norinchi, from the names of the two principal districts from which they originally spread themselves. Bangsa is the capital of Lintow formerly called Soompoo Coodoos, (or sacred quarters) the residence of the tooanko of Passaman, as he is now called. Lintow is situated at the foot of Bookit Begomba, within the grand division of Looboo Agam. Norinchi is situated in Renna Leema Pooloo, at the foot of Goonoong Tella Mow (Caanang.)

The four tooankos of Allahan Panjang were men of low estate, and acted under the authority of the tooanko of Norinchi. They subsequently became so powerful, that they broke off from the tooanko, and set up for themselves. These are the three grand divisions of Padries: the tooanko passaman of Lintow—the tooanko norinchi of Looboo Agam, and the allahan panjang tooankos.

The title of tooanko (my lord) so common at Nattal and thereabouts, that it is bestowed upon every petty raja, is, at Menangcabow, reserved solely for men of learning and ability whether they be rajahs or not, and an unlearned raja is seldom tolerated. When such an occurrence happens, he generally falls as a passive tool into the hands of some cunning priest.

At Cota Tenga, in Looboo Agam, there resided a learned and famed priest, since dead, known generally as tooanko Cota Tenga. He became so celebrated, that he had the instructing of a vast number of individuals, many of whom, at this day, fill the chief posts in the interior. The present tooanko passaman, then but a commoner, and the father of the present tooanko of Norinchi, were his scholars; and a friendship between them commenced upon this basis, and continued not only during the life of the tooanko, but with his son the present tooanko of Norinchi. So many individuals trained under one master, naturally imbibed many similar prejudices and opinions, and a literary intercourse, no wise tending to the safety of the general liberty, appears most likely to have been carried on. The tooanko of Passaman, yet a commoner, but shrewd and intelligent, married into the royal family. By the natural decease of some of the individuals of this family, and by murderous treason, he found himself elevated to a station, where decision and action were eminently and immediately necessary. By his emissaries and his arms, and by means of his friends, he trampled down opposition and became the head of a league not less unexampled in Sumatran history, than astonishing in its effects; whether as to the nature of its conquests, or the intelligence, by which such numerous conquests are held under the yoke.

A sketch of Menangcabow will here be interesting and is indeed necessary. Menangcabow, in its most extensive sense, includes Tanna Daratan, Looboo Agam, and Renna Leema Pooloo; and as such, it will be here spoken of. Pareeangan, situated at the foot of the great volcano Goonoong Berapp e was the original seat of the royal family. They subsequently removed to Paggar Rooyoong or Battang Selo.

Paggar Royoong, (sometimes called Ballie Jango, this being the proper name of the campong, while the other means the river Selo,) is situated in Sooroowassa at the foot of Bookit Begomba, on the opposite side to Lintow. The chief is called Raja Allam. His proper title is Maha Raja de Raja, the name of the original founder of the monarchy, and supposed to be a great-grand-son of Mahomet. The title is, however, too sacred for common use. The Raja Allam though brought up in all the learning of the age, generally gave way to his propensities of gambling and smoking. He was seldom called upon to exercise his authority, as this was vested in his ministers as hereunder enumerated. The chiefs immediately under the Raja Allam, were eang duo selo.—These were raja addat and raja ebaddat; the former deciding in cases touching the law and tradition; the latter presiding in all matters of sacred appeal. They originally formed members of the Paggar Rooyoong house, and though by length of time, relationship cannot be traced, yet the dependence is claimed and

admitted respectively; and as the Raja Allam can only marry in their families and those of the eang ampat selo, a proper understanding and subordination still exist.

The eang duo selo resided at Soompoo Coodoos, now called Lintow, of which Bangse and Booho, are the principal cities.

Next in rank are the eang ampat selo, whose origin is altogether fabulous. Their names or titles are bandhara of Soongye Taru, mangcoodoom of Si Maneea, endomo of Sooroowassa, and caleea of Padang Gunteeang. Of these four, the bandhara is the principal chief, and is never called upon for personal service when the Raja Allam moves; while the remaining three, distinguished by the denomination of eang teega selo, accompany and attend upon the Raja Allam, in all his processions or travels. Each of these four possesses a large extent of territory, and a numerous body of dependants.

The grand assembly is formed of the six selo, and all matters, judicial or political, are settled by them. The duo selo have casting votes according as the case may be secular or ecclesiastical. A final reference can be made, when necessary, to the Raja Allam.

The last Raja Allam had 2 sons, raja Coondoo of bookit Begomba, and raja Bawang of Sooroowassa. They were put to death by the tooanko passaman, leaving each of them a son. The son of Raja Coondo was likewise murdered by the same hand. The son of Raja Bawang fled to the Dutch, who afterwards took him back to Sooroowassa.

The last raja addat died childless, about 25 years ago, and the title in consequence was taken by the raja ebaddat. He who bore this double title, died about 10 years ago, leaving a son, yet a junior, who should rightfully succeed to both titles. It was a daughter of this last raja ebaddat whom the tooankoo of passaman married. The tooankoo has changed the name of Soompoo Coodoos to Lintow, and assumes all the rights of the consolidated offices of raja addat and raja ebaddat. He has the son of the latter in his possession, and he is of course pootih.* The tooan raja gadis, has not been molested by the tooanko. She, of her free will, is pootih, and being too sacred for marriage, added to her advanced age, and her general opinions chiming in with the pootihs she has been left in peace. She is considered as the aunt of the last Raja Allam.

The eang ampat selo are pootih. The teega selo are yet junior, but raja bandhara is of age, and bears the title of Pomoncha Allam. To him have been confided (it is said) all the regalia, by the unanimous voice of the chiefs. Looboo Agam is now under the general controul of the tooanko of Norinchi. Renna Leema Pooloo is under its various chiefs, and Lintow and Soorowassa under the tooanko passaman. The tooanko of Norinchi has for some time past lived peaceably, and itams and pootihs are united in Looboo Agam.

The padries militant forbid gambling, liquors, opium, tobacco, and sirih; and a variety of personal observances, as to the colour and wearing of the clothes, and to the posture and carriage of the body, are insisted upon. They enforce upon all, the observances required in the koran, and hence praying cannot be dispensed with in any one.

Trade and agriculture are encouraged. The conquered rajas are deposed, if not learned and intelligent; and if they resist they are put to death. Having once fixed upon the chief, and received a tax from the individuals of the country, in token of subjection, the country is left in peace. They are guided by the khoran in all judicial matters, and hence it is that in the interior many individuals are found maimed, having lost a limb for robbery or other misdemeanor. There are few or no written histories. Each district or subdivision has its own mosque.—The priests are not distinguished by titles, and the most intelligent is required to batcha k'toba.

The houses in the interior are of plank or bamboo and covered with ijoo, or attap, or lallang, according to the ability of the individual.

The tooanko passaman has fortified bookit Begomba, which has a valley on it. This valley is surmounted by a flying bridge of bamboos rendering a ready communication with either part; and if the tooanko be forced from one of his holds, he can cut away the bridge and render the communication with his second stand impracticable.

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* *Pootih* means white, and is applied by the Padries to all persons submitting to their doctrines; while they designate others as *Itam*, or black.

[*Published in the Malacca Observer, January* 1827.]

SUMATRA.

REPLY TO THE 5TH ARTICLE IN THE 67TH AND OTHER NUMBERS OF THE QUARTERLY REVIEW, RESPECTING THE PRACTICE OF ANTHROPOPHAGY AMONG THE BATTAK NATION IN SUMATRA.

"The proper study of mankind is Man."

In the 67th number of the Quarterly Review, published in June last, there is a critique upon "A Mission to the East Coast of Sumatra in the year 1823, by Mr. Anderson." Although the author has no cause to be dissatisfied with the general tone of the reviewer's remarks, which are liberal and consistent with fair and candid criticism; yet there are some observations respecting the practice of cannibalism among the Battaks which require notice. The reviewer seems to have confounded the tribes of that singular nation, inhabiting the districts above Delli and Langkat, who are cultivators of pepper, with the more barbarous and indolent tribes who are found considerably further to the southward, in the interior of Batubara, Assahan, Beelah and Panei.

In allusion to the Karau Karau tribe who occupy the districts bordering upon the territory of Acheen, the author has in several parts of his work, distinctly, stated that they are not cannibals, and enumerated as far as he was able, from the information collected, the particular tribes amongst which the revolting practice of anthropophagy still exists. Yet the reviewer makes it appear,* that the young Malay chief at Kallambir in Bulu China, had 200 cannibal Battaks in his employ, while they are, in fact, represented by Mr. Anderson, as an industrious and comparatively civilized race. The reviewer also attaches to the author a personal suspicion as existing in his mind, in commenting upon the following allusion to the inhabitants of Soonghal. Mr. Anderson observed† "they are exceedingly filthy about their houses, the one which we occupied being filled above and below with bones, skulls of buffaloes and of some large monkeys, having so great a resemblance to human bones, as to excite not the most pleasurable ideas and a suspicion in the minds of my people, that we had got into the country of the cannibals." However credulous the author, or his companions may, from the foregoing observation, on finding themselves ushered into a room filled with the skulls of monkeys, have appeared in the eye of the reviewer; it must be acknowledged, as an eminent traveller says, that roasted monkeys, particularly those which have a very round head, display a hideous resemblance to a child; so much so that Europeans‡ who are obliged in some parts of South America, to feed upon quadrumanes, prefer separating the heads and hands and serve up only the rest of the animal at their tables.

The reviewer, in his anxiety to establish an inclination to credulity on the part of the author, on this point, omits to quote in reference to the raja of T'anah Jawa, two sentences preceding those selected, which tend to qualify the observation respecting the propensities ascribed to some Battaks, who are of such brutal and depraved habits as to eat human flesh sometimes to satisfy the cravings of a vitiated taste, rendered familiar by indulgence at the feast on their prisoners of war and criminals condemned to the ignominious punishment of being devoured by their fellow men. It were vain to argue abstractedly upon such a question, and it has been justly observed by an eminent author,§ who had to contend, some years ago, against the incredulity of the Quarterly upon the same subject, that the varieties, inconsistencies and

* Page 107. † Mission to Sumatra, page 68. ‡ Humboldt. § Marsden's History of Sumatra, page 390.

contradictions of human manners are so numerous and glaring, that it is scarcely possible to fix any general principle that will equally apply to the incongruous races of mankind, or even to conceive any irregularity to which some or other of them have not been accustomed. It has with equal truth been remarked* that the practice of eating human flesh, even of the body of an enemy, manifestly tends to eradicate a principle, which is the chief security of human life, and more frequently restrains the hand of the murderer, than the sense of duty or the dread of punishment. Death must lose much of its horror among those who are accustomed to eat the dead, and when there is little horror at the sight of death, there must be less repugnance to murder. There is, therefore, nothing so very incredible in the propensity attributed to the raja of Tanah Jawa, who it is said, has become partial to human flesh. The Battaks are as fond of the flesh of monkeys as the Otomacs of South America, and the justice of the observation of Humboldt and Bonpland must be admitted. On seeing, they remark, the Otomacs devour the arm or leg of a roasted monkey, it is difficult not to believe that this habit of eating animals, that so much resemble their physical organization, has in a certain degree, contributed to diminish the horror of antropophagy among savages. Upon the same principle, it may be presumed, that the familiar custom of eating prisoners and criminals, as the Battaks are well ascertained to do, may, in time, lessen the disgust which must be felt at first and even induce a taste for that particular species of animal food.

The propensity ascribed to the raja of Tanah Jawa, and some other savage Battaks who have been addicted to cannibalism from their youth, is not so remarkable as the case of the Poissardes of Pairs† devouring the flesh, and the raw flesh too, of the unhappy victims of revolutionary frenzy, or that of a woman of Milan, who from a depraved appetite, had an invincible inclination to human flesh, of which she made provision by enticing children into her house, where she killed and salted them, a discovery of which having been made, she was taken and broken on the wheel and burnt in 1529.‡ Other instances of such horrid propensities, amongst Europeans, even in more modern times, might be given. It has indeed been a disputed point amongst physicians, whether there is not some inherent principle in certain persons consisting of an acrid antibiliary humour, which being lodged in the coats of the ventricle, produces this voracity, and instances of inhuman hunger have been given in support of the theory.

Among the many physiological phenomena which distinguish the habits of some races of human beings, may be mentioned the custom of the Otomacs. Humboldt states that they eat earth, that is, they swallow every day, during several months, very considerable quantities of clay to appease hunger, without injuring their health. The same traces of vitiated appetite have also been observed among the Guamoes and some other tribes on the banks of the Oronoco;

"If" says that learned author, "the Indian eat earth from want during two months (and from three quarters to five quarters of a pound in 24 hours) he does not less regale himself with it during the rest of the year. Every day in the season of drought, when fishing is most abundant, he scrapes his ball of poya and mingles a little clay with his other aliment. I observed every where, within the torrid zone, in a great number of individuals, children, women and sometimes even full-grown men, an inordinate and almost irresistible desire of swallowing earth. In looking over these examples, which are all taken from the torrid zone, one is struck with the idea of finding a taste which nature, it would seem, should have reserved for the inhabitants of the most sterile regions, prevail among races of rude and indolent men, who live in one of the finest and most fertile countries of the globe."

Remarkable as the style of living among the Battaks may be, we have many examples of the partiality of other comparatively civilized races of men to a diet which to us appears loathsome and offensive, and which these nations from habit or a naturally depraved taste, would prefer to the choicest dishes at an alderman's dinner in Guildhall. The Pariahs of Hindostan (it is observed in a recent work,§ from which several of the facts in this reply are taken,) attracted by the stench of rotten carcases, fly in crowds to dispute the infectious carrion with the dogs, the ravens and other birds of prey. They share the mass of corruption and return to their dens to devour it without rice, seasoning or any other accompaniment. Little do they care of what disease the animal may have died; for they make no scruple to poison secretly their neighbour's oxen and cows, to provide a savage repast for their ravenous appe-

* Rees's Cyclopædia. Hawkesworth's account of the voyages to the South Sea.
† Quarterly Review No. 67. Page 110.
‡ Rees's Cyclopædia.
§ Myer's Geography, vol. 2d.

tites. The Bushmen of southern Africa generally eat the flesh raw, and when they cook it they only warm it, and apply their teeth to it at the moment it is taken from the ashes. The inhabitants of the Kirulean Isles are very partial to bear's liver. The Chinese are not particular in their choice of animal food: cats, dogs, rats, and almost every species of animals, serpents, &c. and which have either been killed or died a natural death;* bear's paws, birds' nests, and sea-slug are considered great delicacies. The Tibetians prefer raw to roasted mutton. The Cochin-Chinese prefer rotten eggs to fresh; putrid eggs cost more than the latter by 30 per cent.† Those that contain young are still more highly esteemed, and amongst the numerous dishes sent by the king to Mr. Crawfurd and his party, were two plates full of hatched eggs, containing young that were already fledged. The gentlemen of the mission were assured that this was considered as a mark of very great distinction. Doubting still of the fact, they sent the eggs to the soldiers appointed as a guard, who gobbled them up with the most luxurious voracity. The various tribes of Esquimaux are very partial to raw blubber. That taste has doubtless been excited by an occasional want of fuel.‡ Captain Lyon describes one of their feasts after an hunting excursion, at which he found blood, blubber and entrails, skins and flesh of seals lying sociably intermixed in savoury heaps. Although fuel was abundant, yet while the women were preparing the messes, the children solaced themselves by eating such parts of the raw, uncleaned entrails as their young teeth could devour, and those morsels which proved too tough, were delivered over to their mother, who soon reduced them to a proper size and consistency for their tender offspring. A meal lasts a long time, as each eats, or rather bolts several pounds and the pots are, in consequence, frequently replenished. In the intermediate time, the convivès suck their fingers, or indulge in a few lumps of delicate raw blubber. The Abyssinians eat the flesh of their sheep and cattle, raw. Slices of the flesh are cut from the living animals standing at the door and eaten with teff cakes. As no man of consequence in Abyssinia ever feeds himself or touches his victuals, a female sits on each side of him, who cuts the raw flesh warm in the blood and the fibres still quivering, into small pieces, rolls them up in pieces of the teff cake, like a cartridge, and alternately thrusts them into his mouth. So says Mr. Bruce; but Mr. Salt's experience induced him to assert that the brinde was not cut from the animal while living, but that it was first killed, and then the flesh immediately taken while the blood was still warm. Mr. Pearce confirms the account of the last mentioned traveller and states that the Abyssinians at all times prefer raw to cooked victuals. The disgusting practice of cutting the *shulada* from the buttocks of the living animal by the Abyssinian soldiers, closing the wound, plastering it over with dung and afterwards driving the animal with the rest till it was convenient to kill it, is also confirmed by Mr. Pearce. What is it but habit that constitutes so marked a distinction in the mode of living among European nations? How few Englishmen would be induced to join a Frenchman in a frog-feast or partake of a bowl of train oil with a Russian! Compare the mode of cooking in the British Isles and France. In the former we find the tables loaded with large joints, shoulders, and legs, and the meat is frequently eaten almost raw. The French endeavour to conceal the nature of the food and eat their meat very much done, in order that, as a late traveller says,§ they may not behold on raising their heads, in the blood-stained mouths of their opposite neighbours, what a carnivorous animal man is.

It has often been doubted whether there exists on the face of the globe, any nation so barbarous as to be without a religion of some kind. Amongst some tribes of the Battaks, it must be confessed, as Mr. Marsden states, that their religion is so obscure in its principles as scarcely to afford room to say that any exists, and traces of it are nearly as indiscernible as among the Carians of Ava, the inhabitants of the Pelew Islands, or the Aborigines of New Holland; and hence they have no stimulus to a good action, and nothing to deter them from a bad one. ‖Destitute then, as the Battaks are of the finer feelings of religion, which bind man to man and

* It was a practice in China at one time for tavern-keepers to put to death a fat guest, when opportunity served, and to make pies &c., of the flesh for the entertainment of their other guests who were so fortunate as not to be so well-fed.—Editor.

† Finlayson's Mission to Siam and Hue, pages 396-397.

‡ Private Journal, 1824, page 121.

§ View of Society and Manners in the North of Ireland, by J. Gamble Esq., 1813, page 120-121.

‖ "One common character runs through savages of every kind. The empire of the heart is divided between two rival deities or rather demons, selfishness and terror. The chief ministers of the first are lust, hatred and revenge; the chief ministers of the second are cruelty, credulity and superstition. Look through the world, and you will find this description apply to barbarians of every age and country. It is equally the history of Europeans and Africans, of the Pelasgi, who were the progenitors of the Greeks, of the Celts and Scythians, the successive progenitors of the

of the susceptibilities engrafted by education; and reflecting upon the brutality of uncultivated savages in all parts of the world, there seems as little improbability that the rajah of Tanah Java and a few other Battaks should, from habitual indulgence in eating human flesh in the bodies of enemies and criminals, form as decided a taste for that food, and hence not stickle about the means of obtaining it;* as the Otomacs for clay, the Pariahs for carrion, the Kuriliana for bears' liver, the Cochin-Chinese for hatched eggs, the Esquimaux for raw blubber, the Frenchman for frogs, the Abyssinian for the shulada, and John Bull for rare mutton or a half-putrid muir fowl.

But, may it not be contended that some races of men are naturally and instinctively addicted to savage propensities which the attention and care of civilized man has failed to eradicate.? † On this head it may suffice to notice the intractable character of the aborigines of New Holland. It has been asserted ‡ that the inference to be drawn from the attempts to reclaim them from their barbarous habits is, that the Australians will never be civilized. Englishmen have resided among them more than 30 years, and the most persevering attempts have always been made and are still making to induce them to settle, and avail themselves of the arts of life; but they cannot be fixed, nor is it possible by any kindness, or cherishing, to attach them. They have been brought up from infancy in the nurseries of Europeans and yet the woods have seduced them at maturity, and at once elicited the savage instincts of finding their food in trees, and their paths in the forest,—propensities which civil education had only smothered. They have been removed from their native country and in a foreign land they have robbed and run away from their fosterer and only protector. They are the only savages in the world who cannot feel or know that they are naked. The natives of the Andaman islands and the semangs of the Malayan peninsula, (both degenerate races of negroes) resemble the aboriginal inhabitants of New South Wales in many points of character, and attempts to reclaim them from their savage habits have been found ineffectual.

Let us, however, take a still more enlarged view of human propensities, the offspring of superstition and ignorance; and advert to the practices which we find are common to some nations considerably advanced in civilization,—habits which we regard with abhorrence. The Hindoo lives in a constant dread of killing an insect, and yet regards the sufferings of his fellow creatures with unparalleled insensibility. The apathy he manifests even merges into active cruelty. His sick relative is taken to the water-side; and his mouth, nose and ears stuffed with mud to hasten his dissolution. To what extravagant lengths has not religious fanaticism sometimes led the inhabitants of every country and what unspeakable barbarities have been committed under the cloak of religious enthusiasm! The fakeers and yogees lacerate themselves with whips, lie on beds of iron spikes, suspend themselves by iron hooks, chain themselves to trees, travel long journies rolling themselves on the earth and clench their hands till the nails penetrate through the flesh. And let us not forget the scenes which were formerly familiar in France when succours were administered. ‡ These succours consisted in blows with a stick, a stone, a hammer, a poker, or a sword. One woman would lie down to be threshed like a bundle of wheat; another stood upon her head; a third forming a half circle, by bending her body backwards, remained in that frightful position, while a stone fifty pounds weight, fastened by a rope to a pulley, was repeatedly let fall upon the abdomen; a fourth had a plank placed a-

English. All the discoveries of modern circumnavigators confirm the assertion, and though the captivating names of Friendly and Society Islands have been given to two distinct groups in the vast bosom of the Pacific Ocean, and the inhabitants in several of them have made some progress in the first rudiments of civilization and government, there is not a people or tribe to be met with, who are yet in a savage state that are not slaves to these debasing and tyrannical passions. The gentleness of courtship or rather the first proof of passion, among the savages of New South Wales, consist in watching the fair one of another tribe to her retirement, and then knocking her down with repeated blows of a club or wooden sword, after which impressive and elegant embrace, the matrimonial victim is dragged streaming in her blood, to the lover's party, and obliged to acknowledge herself his wife."—*The book of Nature.* By John Mason Good, M. D. F. R. S. &c. vol. 3. page 279.

* The natives of Battak are not ashamed to acknowledge that they are cannibals. Some years ago a Battak servant of a gentleman in Malacca on seeing his master's child washed, made the following remark—"Kalu nigri aku anak ini tousa chuchi, depangang saja;" i. e. in our country it would be unnecessary to wash this child, he might be roasted at once; intimating that as the boy was white and looked clean he might be eaten without being washed.

Another servant of the same gentleman told him that when her grand-father or grand-mother became old and useless, a large fire was kindled at the foot of a tree from the top of which they were let fall into the fire where they were roasted alive and afterwards eaten. This she declared to be the customary mode of despatching old people. She also remarked that the palm of the hand was the most delicious part of the body.—Editor.

† Geo: Memoir of New South of Wales, by B. Field Esq. pages 224-225.

‡ Vide Quarterly Review, No. 32 to 34 and Histoire des Sectes Religieuses. Par M. Gregoire, &c.

cross her while she lay on her back and bore as many men as could stand upon the plank. Another, it is affirmed, suffered herself to be fastened to a spit and turned before a fierce fire, until a pullet, which was lashed to her back, was fairly roasted. Others voluntarily suffered crucifixion, their hands and feet being nailed to wooden crosses. Another took a fancy to have her gown burnt off her back; but it must be confessed that the illusion of mind could not strengthen the last-mentioned patient against such a trial. Sister Francoise shrieked for help, water was poured upon her, and she was carried away half scorched, half drowned, throughly ashamed, and sufficiently punished.

Extravagant as these instances of religious fanaticism are, we find that among many nations in a still less advanced state of knowledge, superstition assumes even more hideous forms, and induce the commission of acts contrary to every principle which should actuate rational beings. The practice of sacrificing human victims still prevails extensively in many parts of the world. This custom, which captain King supposes to be a relic of the horrid practice of cannibalism, obtains universally among the Sandwich islands, and at Owhyee human sacrifices were more frequent, (according to the accounts of the natives themselves,) than at any other of the islands. It used to be the custom at Tonga, when the divine chief Toitonga died, to strangle his chief wife; but this practice has been left off. * Bowdich states that the sacrificing of slaves and firing of muskets during certain festivals, appear to be the leading pastimes of the Ashantee nation in Africa. A man may kill his slave with impunity and when any person of consequence dies, one or two slaves are immediately sacrificed at the door of the house. On the death of the king, the brothers, sons and nephews of his majesty fire promiscuously amongst the crowd, sacrifices are made, &c. Several of the hearts of the enemy after a battle are cut and eat. The Dahomians are equally barbarous. It is stated † that in order to *water* with their blood the graves of the king's ancestors, and to supply them with servants of various descriptions in the other world, a number of human victims are yearly sacrificed in solemn form, and this carnival is the period at which the shocking rites are publicly performed. Scaffolds are erected outside the palace wall and a large space fenced in round them. On these, the king, with the white strangers, who think proper to attend, and the ministers of state are seated, and ministers of state are also present in the space beneath. Into this field of blood the victims are brought in succession, with their arms pinioned, and the *fetisher* laying his hand on the devoted head, pronounces a few mystical words, when another man standing behind him, with a long scimitar, severs the sufferer's head from this body, generally at a single blow, and each repetition of this act is proclaimed by loud shouts of applause from the surrounding multitude, who affect to be highly delighted with the power and magnificence of their sovereign. Human sacrifices were in former ages offered by the *Hindoos*, a comparatively civilized people; but what can be more shocking than some of the practices still observed? Children are thrown to the sharks in the Ganges; devotees throw themselves into the river; widows are burnt with the bodies of their husbands; many sacrifice themselves under the car of Jaggernauth. The Chinese cast their female infants into the stream, and the papers lately printed by order of the house of Commons, shew to what a dreadful extent infanticide prevailed a few years ago in a certain quarter of India. Mr. Ellis proves that infanticide prevailed extensively in the Sandwich islands. The mothers sometimes buried their children alive.

It has been noticed by many travellers ‡ that the conduct which the Indian islanders observe towards the dead, wounded and prisoners, is marked with the same want of generosity and the same inhumanity which is found to be the invariable concomitant of the early stages of civilization. Some of the savages of Borneo destroy their prisoners and devour their flesh. The people of Celebes sometimes devour the hearts of their enemies, either to gratify revenge or aggravate their usual ferocity, and there is hardly a warrior of note who, at some period or other, has not partaken of this horrid repast. It is well known that the natives of Macassar when successful in the chase, immediately cut open the body of the stag or wild ox and devour the heart raw and warm from the body of the animal, or present it to the chief as a delicacy. The inhabitants of New Caledonia are cannibals, according to captain Cook, and the want of provisions is considered a sufficient excuse for their going to war, in order that they may devour the bodies of their slaughtered enemies. The natives of New Zealand are a most

* Mariner's Tonga Islands, vol. 1. pages 341-342.
† A voyage to Africa by John McLeod M. D. pages 57-58.
‡ And by the author of the Indian Archipelago, vide vol. 1 pages 242-243.

ferocious race of cannibals. The Rev. Mr. Marsden who visited that island in the year 1819, refutes any doubts that had been previously entertained relative to this horrid custom. Not only the chiefs who are slain are eaten, but their wives are given up, put to death in cold blood, and eaten by the areekas or priests. We find many disgusting details of the barbarous habits of the Tonga islands in Mr. Mariner's book.* In giving an account of a feast after war, he states that the bodies of two hundred men were barbecued and served up with an equal number of hogs and fowls and two hundred baskets of yams. Every man and woman on the island had a share of each of those articles, whether they chose it or not. Most of the chiefs, warriors and other ferocious part of the company partook of this inhuman diet, and several of them feasted on it. Captain Forest gives a frightful picture of the Harraforas and represents them as cannibals, drinking out of the skulls of their enemies. The most singular feature in their character is the necessity imposed on every individual of imbuing his hands in human blood. No person is permitted to marry till he can shew the skull of a man whom he has slaughtered. The ornaments of their houses are human skulls and teeth, which are in great request with them.† The inhabitants of Queen Charlotte's Sound were cannibals in the days of captain Cook,‡ and that officer gives some convincing proofs of anthropophagy in that quarter. The Javanese at a no very distant period, exhibited the same ferocity as some of their neighbours. The ears of the Dutch prisoners who were put to death were sent by one prince to another, his ally, the prince Mangkabumi, and they were stewed with the flesh of buffaloes and eaten by his soldiery. "The people eat one and all and bowed in respectful silence."‖ The Dutch were in the habit of receiving from these barbarous allies baskets full of their enemies' heads as valuable gifts!

Having by reference to some of the more prominent distinctions in the habits of different tribes and nations, endeavoured to shew that there is no irregularity however glaring or monstrous which may not have prevailed amongst them, and having taken a glance at a few of the more barbarous races amongst whom anthropophagy has been ascertained by travellers of undoubted veracity to exist, it may be proper to advert to the particular objections of the Quarterly Review on the subject of cannibalism. Incredulous as that review long professed itself of the reports of some travellers who have given details respecting this custom, it cannot fail to be now remarked that further experience dispelled the doubts so confidently urged. A higher order of philosophy distinguishes the later numbers of that review. The arguments in the 9th volume against the existence of anthropophagy have been ably refuted by Mr. Marsden, who, in the latest edition of his valuable work, has adduced proofs of man-eating amongst the Battaks altogether irresistible. In the 4th volume of the Quarterly§ the same doubts are repeated in the most unqualified terms:

"We doubt not the world has long been abused with regard to the cannibals or eaters of human flesh, *and perhaps no such people exist*. The late Mr. Alexander Dalrymple, hydrographer to the Admiralty and the East India Company, used to say that although he had read all the voyages and travels that ever were published in any language, and of course had met with many stories of anthropophagy, yet he knew not a single instance on personal knowledge, that could be considered as substantiating the fact, by such direct, positive evidence, as would be taken in a court of justice, we mean of course, *the fact of eating human flesh from choice*; dire necessity which compelled the unfortunate inhabitants of Johanne to eat their own children, or the shipwrecked crew of the *Nautilus*, the dead bodies of their comrades, must be taken as an exception. Every age and portion of the globe have nevertheless had their anthropophagy, Cyclops, Scythians, and Sarmatians."*a*

In the 56th number of the Quarterly we find it nevertheless admitted that "the numerous nations of Battaks who have been *convicted of cannibalism*, yet possess an alphabet as well as literature, religion and institutions of their own;" and in the number to which the present

* Vol. I. pages 345 346.

† Vide Researches into the Physical History of Man, by J. C. Prichard, M. D. F. L. S.

‡ Hawkesworth's Voyages in the Southern Hemisphere, vol. 2, page 340.

‖ Crawfurd's Indian Archipelago, vol. 1, page 244.

§ No 26, July 1815, page, 307.

a "From what yet remains of the poetry of the barbarians of ancient Europe, we learn that the savage on returning from his war of pride, raised the song of triumph, in which he recapitulated with exultation, all the horrid deeds of cruelty perpetrated by his tribe in the pursuit of vengeance. He gloried in having devoured the flesh of his enemies and in having converted their skulls into cups from which he quaffed their blood." Miss Hamilton's Popular Essays, vol. 1, page 393.

observations in particular, are a reply, it is acknowledged that the Battaks "do eat human flesh, *but they eat it legally, are cannibals by law ;* they eat it as a species of ceremony, as a mode of showing their detestation of certain crimes by an ignominious punishment, and occasionally, but very rarely, as a savage display of revenge and insult to their unfortunate enemies. The objects of this barbarous repast are prisoners taken in war, mostly those wounded, and offenders condemned for certain capital crimes, especially for adultery."* Yet the admission is somewhat reluctantly made; for in a preceding page (103) of the same article, it is stated that every account which Mr. Anderson gives of their villages, of the decent conduct of their men, the cleanliness of their houses too, (the houses at Soonghal for instance represented by the author as extremely filthy and full of bones and skulls, or the dwellings at Passir Mandogei, where there were swarms of pigs under them) makes the reviewer revolt from the idea that cannibalism does exist. It is difficult to discover upon what principle Mr. Anderson can be accused of having been imposed upon by the Malay and Battak chiefs, because he possessed himself of the skull of a victim which the people in whose district he was, said had been eaten a few days before his arrival. Although doubts are cast upon the details given by him, the reviewer confirms them in a great degree, by the testimony of Sir Stamford Raffles. It should not be forgotten that the author of the mission found the chiefs engaged in hostilities. The reviewer himself, acknowledges that the bodies of prisoners are eaten, that the law of the land sanctions the eating of criminals and enters into a minute detail of the ceremony which coincides as well with the description given by Mr. Anderson as by some authors. Who then would expect such a sagacious remark as "a Battak who had seen the human heads which no long time ago were stuck upon Temple Bar, would have just as good proof for saying that the people of London were cannibals."

The propriety of this argument may be questioned. Would it not be good circumstantial evidence to the mind of a Battak visiting London, if, in proof of the fact that traitors' heads are stuck upon Temple Bar, he found them as represented, and might he not reasonably consider that he afforded a satisfactory proof of the ignominious punishment inflicted for certain crimes in England, by carrying one of the heads to his countrymen? Or would not a Battak visiting Bengal, have reason to conclude that burying the dead is not a ceremony observed by some of the natives, who cast the bodies into the river to be a prey for the vultures and alligators; if walking along the banks of the Hoogley, he observed in the abundant traces of mortality and evident symptoms in the bones scattered about, that the rites of sepulture were neglected.

Discredit is attached to the account given by the author of the mission because he did not actually witness the ceremony of devouring the victim whose skull he procured, and because he did not choose to be a spectator of the disgusting practice in the person of another victim. It may be remarked however, that it would have been far from the character of an accredited envoy of the British Government to have countenanced the barbarous practice by his presence, and the forbearance on his part to gratify curiosity, under such circumstances, might rather have entitled the author to commendation. It has always been the peculiar characteristic of the East India Company on the west coast of Sumatra, that they have discouraged such practices and endeavoured to impress upon the minds of the poor ignorant savages, the horror with which they contemplated such abominable propensities. Money has been successfully employed in saving devoted victims. Mr. Marsden states that Mr. Hall made a charge in his public accounts of a sum paid to a raja as an inducement to him to spare a man whom he had been preparing as a victim, and that it is in fact this commendable discouragement of the practice by our government, that occasioned its being a rare sight to Europeans, in a country where there are no travellers from curiosity, and where the servants of the Company having appearances to maintain, cannot by their presence, as idle spectators, give a sanction to proceedings it is their duty to discourage, although their influence is not sufficient to prevent them. It may here be mentioned that the district in which Mr. Anderson procured the head of a man who had been taken in action and eaten, is one which never was visited by any European and the tribe are supposed to be the same which Mr. Marsden represents as the most barbarous of any, under the designation of Padimbola, (Mr. Anderson terms them Perdimbanan). According to Marsden, Mr. Miller was informed by some of the people of the Angkola district, speaking of their neighbours and occasional enemies of the Padambola district, that they described them as an unprincipled race, saying "we indeed eat men as a punishment for their

* February 1823, page 123.

crimes and injuries to us, but they way-lay and seize travellers in order to *berbantei* or cut them up like cattle." Might not the reviewer have given Mr. Anderson credit for having found in a quarter of Sumatra well-known to be inhabited by the most uncivilized tribe, the head of a man whose body had been eaten, especially too when it is acknowledged that the law of the land sanctions the practice of man eating, that prisoners and criminals are, as the reviewer admits, devoured by men, "who cut pieces from the body with their knives, steep them in salt, lemon juice and red pepper, (which are sent by the raja who must confirm the sentence,) slightly broil them over a fire prepared for the purpose and swallow the morsels with a degree of savage enthusiasm"—and, this in districts of Sumatra bordering upon British factories established for ages.

The Battaks are the most ancient people on Sumatra and being confined principally to the central districts and plains between the ranges of mountains, having no communication with the sea, it is not much a matter of surprize that they are found to retain many customs which are relics of the rude state of manners which, by the concurrent testimony of all travellers and philosophers, formerly prevailed throughout the eastern islands. * The inland tribes of Battaks have an invincible prejudice to the sight of the sea which they suppose to be the residence of demons and evil spirits. That this extraordinary nation (as Mr. Marsden says,) has preserved the rude genuineness of its character and manners, may be attributed to various causes, as the want of precious metals in its country, to excite the rapacity of invaders or avarice of colonists, the vegetable riches of the soil being more advantageously obtained in trade, from the unmolested labours of the natives, their total unacquaintance with navigation, the divided nature of their government, and independence of the petty chieftains, which are circumstances unfavorable to the propagation of new opinions and customs, as the contrary state of society may account for the complete conversion of the subjects of Menangkabow to the faith of Mahomet; and lastly, the ideas entertained of the ferociousness of the people, from the practices above described, which may well be supposed to have damped the ardour and restrained the zealous attempts of religious innovators.

It may now only be necessary to quote a few authorities in support of the opinions advanced by the author of the mission, respecting the extensive prevalence of cannibalism among the Battaks; and after a comparison of these with what he has set down as the result of his personal observation and the reports of Malay and Battak chiefs, it will remain with the impartial reader to decide whether the public has been so much deceived by the accounts of travellers as the Quarterly review and the late Mr. Dalrymple would have it believed; and whether, if there be not such direct and positive proof "as would be taken in a court of law," † there is not, at least, such plain circumstantial evidence as would tend to convince any not over-incredulous person that ‡ "human flesh is habitually eaten by a certain class of the inhabitants of Sumatra," and albeit eaten from choice.

Extract from letters on Sumatra, by B. Heyne, M. D. F. L. S. Member of the As. Soc. of Calcutta, &c.

"They (the Battacks) eat the flesh of all animals, the human not excepted. The plea that they only feast on that of their enemies or culprits is too trivial to be admitted in excuse or palliation." *page* 389.

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* "In a general view of the nations, who inhabit the eastern islands" (says a modern philosopher) "we meet every where with undoubted indications, which point at a state of manners very different from the present. The introduction of more refined forms of religion, and of more artificial habits from the continent have changed the character of ancient times. But we are able to discover most of these nations in that condition which preceded the effect of such modifying causes. In this stage of society we find all the Indian islanders nearly on a level with the inhabitants of the more distant groups in the Pacific, and connected with them by very close relations. They seem all to have been addicted to wild superstitions, similar to those which prevail in the South sea Islands. The custom of eating human flesh, and various other ferocious habits, appear to have been universal among them. Like the islanders of the Pacific also, they tattoed their skins. Such customs as we have seen, still subsist in many places, and we have reason to believe that they were formerly general. The dialects of these tribes exhibiting mark of affinity, complete the proof of kindred origin which is almost sufficiently established by a general comparison of a moral and physical character." Researches into the Physical history of man. By James Fowles Prichard, M. D. F. L. S. &c. &c. page 313.314.

† Quarterly Review, No. 26. page 367

‡ Marsden's Sumatra, page 315.

Extract of a Minute by Sir S. Raffles on the Singapore Institution, 1823.

"On the subject of the barbarous practices alluded to as common among the wilder tribes, it may be sufficient for the present to state that the Battaks, a numerous people having a language and written character peculiar to themselves, and inhabiting a large portion of the northern part of Sumatra, are *universally* addicted to the horrid practice of devouring the flesh of their enemies whom they take in battle."

The late Dr. Leyden* gives the subjoined account of the Battaks as the result of his enquiries, and it must be admitted that some parts of the description appear as extraordinary as any thing Mr. Anderson has advanced.

"The Batta language, which I regard as the most ancient language of Sumatra, is used by the Batta tribes, who chiefly occupy the centre of that island. The singularity of their manner, and particularly the horrid custom of anthropophagy, practised by a nation in other respects more civilized than the Malays by whom they are surrounded, has attracted the attention of Europeans from the time of the earliest voyagers to our own times, but no very satisfatory account, has ever been given of them, as a nation. The best description of them is certainly given by Marsden, in his history of Sumatra, but even that is very imperfect and superficial and at variance, in some respects, with the information I received from individuals of the nation. Marsden confines their cannibalism to two cases, that of persons condemned for crimes, and that of prisoners of war; but they themselves declare, that they frequently eat their own relations, when aged and infirm, and that, not so much to gratify their appetite, as to perform a pious ceremony. Thus, when a man becomes infirm and weary of the world, he is said to invite his own children to eat him, in the season when salt and limes are cheapest. He then ascends a tree, round which his friends and offspring assemble and as they shake the tree, join in a funeral dirge the import of which is, "The season is come, the fruit is ripe, and it must descend." The victim descends, and those that are nearest and dearest to him, deprive him of life, and devour his remains in a solemn banquet. This account is certainly more likely to excite incredulity than the account of Marsden, but it is the account of some of the Battas themselves, as well as that of the Malays in their vicinity. This inhuman custom is not, however, without a precedent in history, for Herodotus positively asserts that the Paday or Padaoi, about 500 years before our æra, were not only addicted to the eating of raw flesh, but accustomed to kill and eat their relations when they grew old. Now it is curious that Batta, or Batay, for the name is written both ways, seems to be the very word which, in Greek, is rendered Padaioi; the letter p, being almost always pronounced b among several of the Indo-Chinese nations, as in the word Pali which almost always is pronounced Bali. The following is the account which Herodotus gives us of the Paday, or Padaioi. "Another Indian nation, who dwell eastward of these, (the Indian Ichthyophagi) are of nomadic habits, and eat raw flesh. They are called Paday, and are said to practise such customs as the following. Whoever of the community, be it man or woman, happens to fall sick, his most familiar friends, if it is a man, kill him; saying, that by his pining in sickness, his flesh will be spoiled for them; and though he deny that he is sick, they do not attend to him, but put him to death and feast on him. When a woman falls sick, she is treated in like manner by her most intimate female associates. They also sacrifice and feast on him who arrives at old age, and this is the reason that so few of them ever attain it, for they kill every one who falls sick, before that period." This account of Herodotus certainly corresponds very minutely with the customs attributed to the Batta race, and renders it probable that this modern nation derive their origin from the ancient Paday or Batay. Neither is it more incredible that the Battas should eat human flesh, as a religious ceremony, than that anthropophagy should be practised by the class of mendicants termed Agórā Punt'h, in Bengal, and other parts of India, which is a faet that cannot easily be called in question. It is surprizing that this singular custom has received so little investigation."†

The late Major Canning‡ of the Bengal army who proceeded in the year 1814 on a mission from the supreme government to Acheen and the states on the west coast of Sumatra, gives the following account of the Battaks.

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* Vide Dissertation on the Languages, and Literature of the Indo-Chinese nations, Asiatic Researches, vol. 10. pages 202 to 204.

† Dr. Leyden.

‡ This distinguished Officer was formerly Envoy to the Court of Ava and afterwards Political agent to the Bengal Government in that country, when hostilities commenced with the Burmese.

"In addition to what Mr. P. mentions in the above communication on the subject of the practice prevalent among the Battas of eating prisoners taken in war, and with reference to the doubts stated in Marsden's Sumatra (3d. ed. page 393) to be entertained by some with regard to the extensive prevalence of that practice, I may be permitted to state that during my residence at Tappanooly, in the heart of the Batta country, I omitted no opportunity of making the most minute enquiries on this head, all of which tended, not only fully to corroborate the reality of the practice, but that it is much more frequent than is generally imagined, and carried on in a manner even more savage than is related by Mr. Marsden. The following are the questions put by me to a native chief selected indiscriminately from an assembly of several collected on some particular occasion at the house of the officiating Resident at Tappanooly and his answers.

Question. I understand the practice of eating prisoners taken in war, also malefactors convicted of certain crimes is prevalent in the Batta country: were you ever personally present at such a repast?

Answer. The custom you mention is prevalent throughout the Batta country, and I have been more than once present when it has been put in practice.

Question. Describe what takes place on such occasions.

Answer. Three posts are fixed in the ground; to the middle one, the body of the prisoner, or criminal is made fast, while his arms and legs are extended to the two others. (The narrator and other chiefs present here simultaneously made with their arms and legs the figure of St. Andrew's cross) on a signal being given, every one entitled to share in the feast rushes on him with hatchets and knives, and many with no other instruments but their teeth and nails; he is thus in a few minutes entirely cut or torn to pieces, and I have seen the guests so keen at a repast of this description as severely to wound each others' hands and fingers. A mixture of lime juice, salt and chillies prepared in the shell of a cocoanut, is always at hand on these occasions in which many dip the flesh previous to eating it. When the flesh is consumed the bones are divided, and each carries off such as he is able to get possession of, which he continues gnawing till not a particle of fleshy substance remains.

Question. Then the prisoner is not previously put to death, but devoured alive and piecemeal?

Answer. The first wounds he receives are from the hatchets, knives and teeth of his assailants, but these are so numerous and simultaneous as to cause almost immediate death.

The above are the questions and answers which I put to and received from the native chief, on which occasion it was remarkable that more then once, when he was proceeding to give the latter, the others altogether and at the same moment joined assent, which leaves little room to doubt that to most of them at least such scenes were familiar."

The following are extracts from the account of a journey to the Battak country* on the west coast of Sumatra, by the Revd. Messrs Burton and Ward in the year 1824, a year subsequent to Mr. Anderson's mission to the east coast. It must be remembered that the Battaks on the west side of the island have had more intercourse with Europeans than those of the east coast, and Mr. Anderson was the first European who had been seen in some of the countries he visited in the recollection of the oldest inhabitants. In the districts above Assahan, some of the Malays are represented as particularly barbarous, and if credit is allowed to the description given by Messrs Burton and Ward, the accounts of Mr. Anderson derive considerable confirmation, and at all events, the fact of cannibalism prevailing to a great extent is proved, while, with all due deference to the Quarterly Review, it may be stated that there are men who eat human flesh *from choice*.

"Unfortunately the well attested practice of cannibalism in *some of its most odious forms*, so horrible to the imagination of civilized nations had served to corroborate their (the Malays) worst representations and a barrier had thus been raised against almost every effort of research into an extensive and populous country, for more than a century bordered by our settlements and factories, and the exclusive source of some of our most valuable articles of commerce." page 66.

"The opposite side was formed by a corresponding row of open buildings on the same model somewhat smaller, appropriated by night as the sleeping place of the young men, and by day to the more public occupations of the family, the space between the ceiling and the

* Published in the 12th. number of the Friend of India; Serampore 1825.

roof being used as a granary,—*and a depot for the skulls of their enemies.*"—74

"Here we slept within a couple of yards of the *skull of a man who had been eaten*, suspended as a trophy in a public building."—74.

In their choice of animals or even reptiles however, they are by no means delicate; horses, buffaloes, cows, pigs, goats, and fowls, are esteemed the best; but they do not scruple to eat dogs, cats, snakes, monkies, bats, &c. nor does it make any particular diffierence in their estimation whether the animal or reptile has died a natural death or whether it was killed in good health; whether it be recently dead, or bordering on putridity. When an animal is killed for food, they reserve the blood and use it as sauce, pouring it over the meat when cooked and chopped into pieces of about an ounce each. Instances of their extreme unfeelingness and cruelty towards the afflicted and distressed, and towards enemies in their power, are lamentably numerous; their seemingly peaceable disposition may perhaps be resolved into cowardice, and the influence of a dark and enslaving superstition, from whose shackles they are never for a moment free. Hospitality is practiced to a considerable extent both as a public and a private virtue, but avarice is deeply implanted in their minds, and is but thinly disguised by the artifices of an incipient stage of society and civilization."—86.

"Persons caught in the very act of house-breaking or highway robbery are publicly executed with the knife or match-lock, and *then immediately eaten. No money can save them.* But if the delinquents are fortunate enough to escape immediate seizure, they are only fined. A man taken in adultery is *instantly commenced upon, and may be lawfully eaten piecemeal without first depriving him of life. Men killed or prisoners taken in a great war, are also publicly eaten.* Twelve months ago *twenty persons were completely eaten in one day at the village where we resided in Silindung, the skulls of whom were still preserved.* They were inhabitants of a village situated near the path leading to the coast, whom our host represented as having so often plundered the passengers, that their conduct became at length insufferable. These were the last who had thus suffered in Silindung."—101 102.

[*Published in the Malacca Observer*, 1827.]

SUMATRA AND JAVA.

The intelligence to the middle of November last from the Rauw and Boonjal country, in the interior of Sumatra represented it to continue in a state of war. It appeared that the districts more to the southward, inland from Padang, Agham, Tana Data, Lima Poolus, Lintou &c. were tranquil, but vigilance, and kind attention would be required to keep it so. The continuance of a peaceful state of things may also depend on Java being in a condition readily to afford assistance, for it cannot be, nor it is considered perfectly secure on Sumatra, until the arrival of troops from Europe.

The Boonjal expedition, it is long since known, failed entirely. Major or Colonel Eilers had retreated to Fort Ameron in the Rauw district, where he and captain Bland were with 300 troops, very short of provisions, and surrounded by the enemy, the Padries. A party of 150 Europeans, it is said, had been sent about the beginning of November to Ayer Boongy to endeavour to get to their relief, but it was understood that the troops found that route strongly blocked up by the Boonjals, and in consequence, had gone to Nattal with the intention to pass along the Mengdelling (Batta) country. Still it was feared they would not succeed, as likely to be closely watched by the Padries. Great apprehensions were entertained that the whole garrison would be cut off. The rajah of Mengdelling had afforded some relief by a supply of rice, and it is believed a number of troops,—still the place was in a critical situation.

Since then, intelligence to the beginning of January has been brought, announcing that some misunderstanding having arisen between the tuanko Imam of Rauw and that of Tamboosi, the garrison of fort Ameron had been enabled to escape, evacuating the Rauw country altogether, and took up a position at Mengdelling (Batta) where colonel Eilers is with about 280 troops, probably at the request of the Batta people, and on condition of assisting them. That race, fortunately for the Dutch government, will not become mahomedans, or of the sect of Padries, which may explain, or rather mark the term better. An intelligent gentleman, who knows the country, considers the situation abovenamed, as a commanding and desireable one, being secure, provided liberality and good treatment are observed to the people. At the date of the last advices, the natives seemed to be quiet in the interior.

Mr. Vanden Berg towards the end of October had proceeded on a mission from Padang, with a view to effect a treaty with the Boonjals. The hostile appearance of affairs in that quarter afforded no expectations of his succeeding and he had returned without being able to accomplish any thing.

We had learned from Sumatra, that by a government notification, the coffee at Padang would, after the 1st. January last be subject to a tax of one fifth of the quantity produced, or in other words, an impost of 20 per cent would be levied. The government intends to have godowns in the interior at Priaman and Padang, for receiving coffee, and from what can be learned of the plan, it will be such as to throw, if possible, the whole into the hands of government or the Dutch Trading Company which will have charge of these as well as of the salt stores. It was hinted that it purposed also to retain the opium farm, so as to derive the entire profit. The government will enter into the cloth or piece-good trade, that is, supplying the natives with punjams, salempores, &c. from the Coromandel coast, to be provided by the Company, and to be exchanged or sold, so as to secure the coffee;—thus commencing the monopoly of the whole trade. It is since understood that the opium farm will be sold this year as formerly. All or most payments in future will be made in copper money, forced on the cnmmuni-

ty by the new monopoly system. The Company had begun to sell its Coringa cloths to the Chinese for payment to be made in copper, as there are no more coffee contracts; and the copper money will be repaid by the Company to government for the coffee to be received by it. This new regulation took place on the 1st. January, 1834.

It may be understood from the order issued at Padang, by the Commissioner General, that the protecting rate, or the price at which the government agrees to pay at that place to the natives for coffee, is fifteen guilders copper, which would make the tax of one-fifth equal to three guilders per picul. But there is an ambiguity about the regulation, and the order is so obscurely worded, that people are at a loss to discover whether it means one-fifth of the protecting price, or of the market price. It may appear very singular, but the government officers cannot, or may not explain the true meaning; and at Batavia the whole order regarding Padang and Bencoolen seems indistinct and unintelligible. It can, however, mean nothing more than one-fifth of the promised price of *f.* 15 and on the same principle as that on Java, but where two-fifths are taken from the natives; as for example, if the protecting price is *f.* 20 the government require *f.* 8 leaving to the cultivators *f.* 12. Were the tax attempted to be levied at Padang on what was considered the market price, it might lead to unpleasant consequences. If the government servants are afraid of committing themselves by giving an opinion on the subject, it must shew to the natives than an advantage will be taken when possible. It is a pity it should be so, for the Government ought not to trifle with the people of Sumatra. If as apprehended at Padang, it may be construed as one-fifth of the market price, and it is uncertain whether the tax will be *f.* 3 or *f.* 4½ the latter amount would be supposing it levied on *f.* 22½ instead of *f.* 15 per picul. Sufficient time has not elapsed to ascertain what effect may be produced by this monopoly and interference with the purchase of coffee. In the interior, native or other agents are not likely to be permitted to have any, as the government may imagine it has discovered a mode of taking it all. It is said the authorities will give at Priaman the same price as individuals, whilst the latter will have to pay a tax of *f.* 3 or perhaps *f.* 4 to *f.* 5 per picul, as is conjectured, if there is a prospect of the former rate being obtained without causing trouble.

It is evident from such measures, and what may be collected from all now pursuing that the government and the company are, or wish to become, one great interest, and to possess the whole trade. It is reported, that they have not hesitated to say at Batavia, they can do without merchants, and they, without knowing better, might be glad to get rid of them, but it would only be for a short season, until another administration succeeded.

It might not perhaps be credited in Europe that so preposterous an idea could be entertained, yet so it is. At Padang some think government does not wish to be yet too rigid.—"Nanti p'lahan"—responds the Malay;—the geko (goke) in its tender mercy even looks at, and gives a little time, before the poor fly or insect is snapped up.

They should pause, and not go too far, for they may afterwards be compelled to retract with a bad grace. The company and its factors may not, but the government ought to remember, that Sumatra is not a conquered or a subjugated country, and ought to bear in view, that a commercial treaty may have to be concluded in Europe. Should no treaty be entered into soon, it may so happen, from its not being required,—by some little untoward event superseding the necessity of it. There is no actual treaty of commerce existing between Great Britain and Holland, as regards the Indian possessions, but should one be negociated, it may probably be better respected, or at all events better understood than that of 1824 with the Netherlands, because room may not be left for quibbling about words, and that subjects and vessels, having, by the Dutch interpretation, no reference to goods, should be chargeable with a duty which had not been intended to apply to manufactures. Some John Bull or honest Hollander many enquire whether then, it was meant to tax their bodies! The period is near at hand when most commercial treaties may require some revisal, and such a definition as the one now alluded to, may cause some of the diplomatic corps to note article 2nd. of the Treaty of March 1824 between their majesties of Great Britain and the Netherlands, never to be forgotten.

It may be remarked, that after the promises given, or hopes held out by the Dutch government, to relieve the natives from taxes, a new one is laid on, exacting one fifth part of the coffee, the principal and most valuable article of the produce. Is then that government so blind as to imagine that the people in this country or in Europe will believe, because it is the purchaser who may be made responsible for the payment of this duty, an exaction of one-fifth,

that the native cultivator is not interfered with,—that he will not feel it,—and that it will not be perceived? Is it not, in fact, a direct tax on native industry in a country which requires a fostering care,—the chiefs of which never dared to levy such contributions? Considering the professions which have been made, what must the natives think, when for instance, they bring some coffee into market, the purchaser has to acquaint them, it is true he might formerly have given *f.* 25 (guilders) per picul, but that in consequence of the new tax he can allow them only *f.* 20, or if it had been before *f.* 20, he can now afford to give no more than *f.*16,—reminding the natives at the same time, that the person, perhaps an American to whom he may again dispose of it, has to pay another fifth to the Dutch government for export duty, allowing the price to be *f.* 25 per picul; that is, foreigners have to pay on the exportation of coffee to any foreign port *f.* 5 per picul of 125 lbs. Dutch.

But the Government may say whilst it derives on Java two-fifths of the produce, or 40 per cent. (in some cases) from the cultivator, it imposes only half that tax on the Sumatran. True, the one has been accustomed to pay, the other not.—The characteristic indifference between the two people is great. The feudal system on Java combined with it the monarchical and aristrocratic principle;—the people, from immemorial usage, shewing a reverential awe both for their princes and chiefs and contributing whatever was required of them; whereas the democratic spirit was more prevalent on Sumatra. The people readily followed their rajah or their tuanko—their king or their nobles into the field, but these neither could at pleasure impose taxes, nor make exactions in money or in kind, nor would the Malayan principle admit of a land revenue system. What they might give, was more like a voluntary contribution.

The late Mr. Muntinghe who had been a member in council both during the British and Netherlands administrations, was informed by the Governor, then Mr Raffles, that the institutions on Java of the land revenue &c. which he so much approved of, were insuitable to Sumatra. Mr. Muntinghe, however, perhaps from a want of practical or intimate knowledge of its people, might not have been persuaded that such a diversity of character existed between the Javanese and Malays; and when the Dutch had resumed the government, previously to that gentleman proceeding to Palembang, as commissioner, he dwelt with much complacency and self-conviction on the idea that he should in less than 12 months establish the revenue system there as firmly as it had been on Java, and which might soon be extended throughout Pulo Percha (Sumatra.) Mr. Muntinghe was rather strengthened in his favourite plan, and lured by the chiefs, as usual, into a belief that all his wishes might be gratified, and accomplished.—The attack on the fort and residency,—the precipitate flight of Mr. Muntinghe from Palembang, and the subversion of his measures,—were the work of a day.

Perhaps the late resident of Padang could afford testimony of the extent of power over the people possessed even by the chiefs of Menangkaba, and what the effects or beneficial results were of a change of authority.

The wise Grecian legislator of old said "I gave to the Athenians not the best laws, but those most fit for them."—If there is no Solon in our days, it may be better, not to boast of having a Draco.—It is not necessary in the 19th century to write laws with blood.

In the interior of Sumatra where the Dutch government never had power, the natives think it strange that they are now to be overrun and oppressed by a nation, which cannot do justice to its already too extended possessions. Let the intelligent natives and others who are met at Pinang, Malacca, Singapore, and occasionally on Java, coming from, or who are acquainted with the different places on Sumatra, be asked their opinions, and if they know those whom they address to be unbiased, much of their history, their habits and customs, may be collected; and when the spirit of the national character is understood, it is seriously to be regretted that a liberal and enlightened policy should not be displayed thoughout that island, always bearing in view what is congenial to the wishes of such a people.

The opinions too of some of the most valuable servants, both civil and military, who have served the Dutch government on Sumatra, might be brought forward in corroboration of what is stated.

The passive and contented Javan may be turned in any way, he may endure until actual aggression assails him, but the prouder spirit of the Malay is easily aroused, interference with him is sometimes construed into oppression, and in a state of turbulence, he may destroy all, sooner than relinquish a part.

Should the old objection be urged of the unfitness of the Malays to labor, it may be observed, why then expose the weakness of the government by attempting to force them with

inadequate power? Still, did the Dutch possess the means and power to coerce the people, the expense attending it could not be repaid. It may be better however to adduce proof to elucidate that point, and to shew, where there is no check or hindrance, and above all, where there is no interference on the part of the government, Malay industry may be called forth by due encouragement, that is, by actual compensation, the people being allowed to derive profit from the disposal of the produce in any manner they choose, or may prefer. The cultivation of coffee has hitherto been free in the adjacent districts to Padang, as elsewhere, and government superintendance was neither given nor required. Ten years ago, 5000 piculs of coffee (perhaps not exceeding 3000 piculs) were produced. Last year 1832-33, upwards of sixty thousand piculs were exported from Padang. But the withering hand of oppression, or undue power, if exercised in any way, may, within a less period, reduce the produce below the former quantity, or at all events, that government may not derive all the advantages expected.

To those who consider such a prediction visionary, as the decrease in coffee, and unlikely that such baneful consequences could arise, or be occasioned by any policy pursued by the authorities, and who may be inclined to compare the influence of government to the refreshing dews of heaven, or that it possesses the preserving power of Vishnu without the destructive one of Kali, it may not be unnecessary or useless to afford some evidence of the fact, and to attest it by an actual occurrence. The rapid decrease, in a parallel case, may appear more surprising perhaps, than the increase just pointed out.

The Dutch were reinstated in the possession of Java in 1816. Previously to that year, and until 1821, there might have been exported from the port of Samarang averaging about 80,000 piculs of sugar annually. The returns of one year shewed upwards of 84,000 piculs. Instead of rejoicing at the prosperity of the cultivators, and the growing wealth of the country, which must have in an equal rate, enriched the government, it became jealous of them, and not only conceived the idea of dispossessing them, that government might enjoy the whole, but actually attempted and did the deed. Never was the fable of the boy, the goose, and the golden egg more clearly examplified;—members of a government, formerly famed for its sagacity, entertaining notions that the interests of the agriculturists would become too important, and their influence too great—that individuals in a colony had no right to acquire such wealth, which belonged to the state, and that it should be collected henceforth without the intervention of agriculturists with capital! It may scarcely be credited; for even those who from lamentable ignorance, unfortunately uttered such pitiable sentiments, might, when the results are contemplated, and pointed out, be ashamed to acknowledge or avow such, yet from the formation of their minds, and their cramped and narrow views, people of that school cannot now refrain from acting on and propping the miserable old system, so long as abler men are wanting in their councils to instil and to uphold loftier ideas.

The consequences that ensued, must not, and cannot be long dwelt on. Numerous respectable, opulent and industrious people were ruined,—their families beggared. Chinese in the Samarang and Japara districts worth from ten to seventy thousand dollars and upwards, reduced it may be said to hold the plough, work as labourers, or procure a livelihood in any way they could.

Before the lapse of three years, instead of exporting sugar, it was required for consumption in and about Samarang. In 1824-25 it was brought there from Batavia by the traders, and sold at a profit. What sayest thou of carrying coals to Newcastle? But let the tale be concluded, for it may appear to be one more of fancy, than actually belonging to the annals of Java.

About the same time (1823) the time of devastation—the time of the killing of the Java goose—which in the course of one year would have supplied 365 large golden eggs, besides what her numerous progeny would have given—let the Board of Finance, or the Kiken Kamar, calculate the number of doits—about the same time were all the European agriculturists expelled, at four months' warning from the native provinces.—Men who, sanctioned by Government, had laid out what they possessed, and who borrowed largely from their friends, had all invested in the soil in laudable undertakings from which they already had fair prospects of ample remuneration.—It was swept from them entirely, although the then governor-general had visited their establishments, encouraged the coffee planters personally to go on, and wishing them success, not six weeks previously to the fatal intimation being conveyed to them, to leave the interior, and to retire to the coast within four months—it was fatal, because it involved he best interests of the country. The poor and needy Javanese Princes, who had expended

the amount of compensation for the leases granted to the Europeans, were ordered to take back their lands, to cultivate and improve those themselves, and to repay what they had received. They could do neither, for they had no capital, nor means of raising one; and the only way by which the coffee gardens, &c could be preserved, might have been to apportion these to the different dessas or villages. But in the memorable year on Java, A. D. 1825 and of the hejira 1241, it came to pass that the old queen of Boni, on Celebes, required a dressing. Not, fair ladies, a new bib and tucker—but in other words, shame be it spoken, a drubbing, or what is more politely termed, a little coercion, because the haughty old lady said, or was supposed to intimate that queens did not wait on governors. His Excellency was then on a visit to the Moluccas, and among other places stopped at Macassar.

The best troops on Java were called away to perform this glorious service; and fine troops they assuredly were; but the better part of which,—we only venture to say perhaps,—never returned.

In the mean time, during their absence, the discontents which had arisen in the native provinces—particularly at the court of Jockje Kerta, became great, and broke out. And thus commenced the war on Java with Dipo Nigoro, the uncle and guardian of the young sultan, which war did not terminate in four years. Dipo has allowed, that one of the many causes which led to hostilities, was his refusal to allow the sultan's treasury to be drained for the purpose of supplying part of the amount to be refunded to the ejected European planters. The expulsive measure, or retirement of the lease-holders, if it is a softer expression, deplored by the Javanese, ought to be more so by the government, for had the Europeans remained, it is a probable case, that the grievances of the Javans would have been made better known to them, which, with the hostile intentions evinced, might have been in a stronger manner communicated (for cautions had been given, to government and the insurrection prevented.

The commissioner-general Vanden Bosch must feel indignant at the conduct then pursued to the agriculturists, and certes, he would not have permitted it, being the reverse of the better system adopted by him. But it is singular that, possessing good ideas in general about cultivation, he should have tolerated forced measures, or any thing bearing on, or connected with such, calculated rather to retard than encourage the native cultivators on Sumatra.

It is to be regretted too that he should adhere to and persist in his mistaken plans about finance, and a copper standard of value; but it may be excusable; his excellency is not well versed in the latter science. None of the great authorities in Europe would bear him out, and the point he chiefly errs on, has been settled by them. No one appears to have succeeded in pointing out to his excellency the great practical truths and beauties contained in the unerring Book of knowledge on that subject, compiled between the years 1813 and 23, afterwards revised and corrected, with many additions from 1823 to 33, and studied at most of the courts of Europe.

It is to be wished that his majesty William the 1st of Holland may graciously signify his royal will and pleasure, that it be inculcated on those likely to become governors-general, the necessity of acquiring, previously to their appointments, the principles regarding currency and value as therein laid down, as well as the axioms of economy, or the undisputed and practical part of the science, being the most useful on Java and its dependencies. From what we have heard, the present governor-general has brought the new edition with him, and who having studied it well, may, for the edification of those who should be but little acquainted with the work, be pleased to favor them according to seniority, with a perusal of it. A veil of mystery has foolishly been supposed to hang over the old book, which may hitherto have prevented them from looking into it, but that will now be drawn aside, as on closer inspection it is found to be only something like flimsy silk gauze stuff, no better than cobweb, which may be easily removed, or rather thrown away entirely; and no doubt his excellency will, so soon as circumstances permit, act on the tried and approved golden precepts which he knows by heart. And truly they are well worthy of perusal. It is only to be apprehended, when the chosen few have begun to taste and relish the sweets of them, and the delicious moments they may occasionally enjoy, when thinking of the happiness which they may then be the means of extending to the inhabitants of the eastern archipelago, the demand for the third and fourth reading will be so urgent that others, beyond the select circle, may scarcely get a peep at the scarce book. Then indeed one may fancy when passing through Weltevreiden, or along Ryswick and Molenvliet, at Batavia, that he hears something like the sound of the poet's song issuing from the

coaches of the great, quietly as they take their evening drive:

Be gone ye blockheads, Heraclitus cries,
And leave my precepts to the learned and wise.

'Tis true, but 'tis a pity—the sound here died away, and we are obliged to conjecture the conclusion.

The Malays assert that they are perfectly acquainted with the principle of the Dutch government which is encroachment, gaining one advantage after another, and never satisfied unless holding absolute sway, which in conformity with that principle of theirs, cannot be attained unless a country not only be generally taxed, but descending to the minutest articles, imposes vexatious duties on all the little necessaries of life, and farms those out to the highest bidder, galling even to the Javanese, but not to be tolerated by Malays. One instance may serve to afford some idea of multiplied taxation on Java. It is known to most people at all interested about the subject, that the cultivators may generally be said to pay to government equal to two-fifths of the produce, but the rice crop contributes more in some districts than in others, varying according as the land may be classed or valued. The licenses to farm the small taxes in every town and district are sold annually, being levied on almost every article, brought for sale. The padi which is valued on the field has its rate fixed there, and afterwards paid to the collector or resident, but as it is beaten out at their houses, and the rice brought by the people for sale in small quantities in bags or baskets suspended from the shoulder on a bambu, they have to pay another tax to the farmer, who, in some of the grain districts, has his assistants posted at all the avenues to a passar or bazar, or into a town, and as the Chinese are generally the farmers of these taxes, in some places, as the Javanese pass along, they are stamped with a red mark, generally on the breast, to shew they have contributed their proportion. The chop or mark is of course easily rubbed off, but it has a servile and degrading look, and only mentioned to shew that which occasions it is not more reputable than the permission granted to exercise such a license.

The avowed principle, and more than once declared by the governors-general of Java, is that it must never be forgotten, that all the resources of the island, and its dependencies, must be subservient to the interests of the mother country. The British wisely allow that in India, the government is one of opinion and supported by it. The Dutch admit nothing of the kind. Dipo Nigoro, the leader of the last insurrection on Java was aware of it;—and made known by his proclamation that he aimed at mahomedan supremacy. It should not be forgotten that in a population of seven millions, another Dipo less confiding, and more successful may arise.

Nearly the same spirit of Batavian rule may be traced from the time of the war in Java 1750 and 55, or much earlier, to the present day, the same tact at intrigue, creating jealousies, dividing princes, causing a partition of lands like a chess-board, and setting one party against another. Witness the court of Mataram at that period with the Susuhunan, and the erecting what was thought a balance of power, and to be used as such, called then the independent prince of Solo, the ancestor of the present Manko Nigoro. A straight-forward and ingenuous policy appears never to have been contemplated. It remains the same in the archipelago, it continues nearly so in Holland, and is again exhibiting there. It is characteristic. No events in other countries seem to have an effect—no example can create a change.

The heavy imposts of the customs and excise, because supposed to have answered in about 1660 in the seven united provinces must for that reason also be applicable now. At that time Holland, scarcely interfered with in those matters, was at her zenith; no consideration of the changed state of Europe is admissible:—and yet, strange as it may appear, they will neither reflect on the causes of the former greatness of their country or of its decline. In the review of the commerce of Holland it is justly observed that after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, the trade was found to have declined, and in order to possess accurate information on the subject, the stadtholder Wm. the 4th, called on the principal merchants to state their opinions. They did so in an able manner, and while they pointed out what the chief causes had been of the great wealth of the country, they at the same time stated the principal reasons of its decline: "Oppressive taxes" say they, "must be placed at the head of all the causes that have cooperated to the prejudice and discouragement of trade; and it may be justly said, that it can only be attributed to them that the trade of the country has been diverted out of its channel and transferred to our neighbours, and must daily be still more and more alienated and shut out from us, unless the progress thereof be stopt by some quick and effectual remedy. Nor it is dif-

ficult to see that the same will be effected by no other means than *a diminution of all duties*. In former times this was reckoned the only trading state in Europe, and foreigners were content to pay the taxes as well on the goods they brought hither, as on those they came here to buy; without examining whether they could evade or save them, by fetching the goods from the places where they were produced, and carrying others to the places where they were consumed. In short, they paid our taxes with pleasure without any further enquiry. But since the last century the system of trade is altered all over Europe. Foreign nations seeing the wonderful effect of our trade, and to what an eminence we had risen only by means thereof, they did likewise apply themselves to it; and to save our duties, sent their superfluous products beside our country, to the places where they are most consumed, and in return for the same, furnished themselves from the first hands with what they wanted."

Mr. Hogendorff whose recent useful work goes far to shew and to prove that the condition of Holland would be bettered by an alteration, and invigoured by almost an abolition of the various heavy duties, is perhaps considered in his native country, if not a dangerous innovator, at least a fanciful theorist.

As to high duties, the Dutch government ought to have been long since convinced that the object is defeated, which those were supposed to ensure. As for example, in England, when the tax on coffee was first reduced, the following year shewed an increase of revenue on that article; it was again tried during the last war to add to the duty, and a visible decline was soon discovered. On its being reduced to 6 pence per lb. the consumption rapidly increased as well as the revenue in a three-fold proportion, and the amount of duty it now yields is six times greater than when it was 3 shillings and 6d. per lb. And again as regards the customs in England, the receipt of revenue collected in the port of London for the year 1819 was £7,749,463 sterling, at a rate of £3 11s. 8¼d. per cent. In 1832 the revenue was £9,434,854 sterling, at a rate of £2. 11s. 7¾d. per cent.

An enlightened man has occasionally appeared among our neighbours, but he gets beset by the inherent prejudices of those who surround him, and his intentions and plans are frittered away or swallowed up in the gulf of dislike to change. They of course deny their unwillingness to improvement. They say, amend or even alter if you can, but do not venture to sweep away the good old system, forgetting that the machinery is worn out—that it no longer works well, and that it will not revolve at all much longer.

It is far from our intention to utter any thing in a disrespectful manner or to offend the Dutch; they approach nearest to the British in habits and manners, and having naturally been old allies, it is to be regretted that they cannot go hand in hand, and assist in the improvement and amelioration of the condition of the natives of the whole eastern archipelago. These home truths are stated solely with that intent. But it is obvious that as yet no concessions are made, or likely to be given, until forced from our neighbours. That is applicable in the widest sense to the mother country, or to the administration in their Indian possessions. A political favor or a concession, either to an ally, or a dependant state, as regards freedom of trade, is not allowed until in a manner extorted, but such just claims may be made when the power no longer exists of refusing greater and more humiliating demands, and when it is too late even to appear to be liberal.

Some say that the commissioner-general intends to try or rather recommend the conquest of Sumatra, when a supply of troops can be had; we do not believe that report, but if such were the intention, after the declaration to the contrary, the Dutch may possibly not long retain their present hold of that country.

As to the government, by means of, or through the king's trading company, attempting to grasp all the trade of Java and Sumatra it is possible it may be the wish to do so, but as to their being able to hold it long, it is not likely; the idea is preposterous,—it would crumble from them like a rope of sand.

The mass of evidence brought forward before the British parliament, of the incompatability at the present day of the East India Company exercising the functions of sovereigns, and carrying on the trade at the same time, may be too long for the rulers in Holland to get through, as it is a testy subject for them, but it must soon be considered.

The endeavouring to engross the whole trade reminds one of the individual who wished to purchase all the tickets in the lottery, to make sure of all the prizes; the government could not go on for any length of time; it is now straitened, and it presses the bank sorely, which it may in some measure deserve. An individual going to the bank at Batavia requiring to

have a few thousand dollars or rupees in exchange for its own notes, for the actual purpose of trade, is greeted on his entrance as if he came there to do little less than to extort, we had almost said to rob the treasury, whilst government demand and send money away in lacs, which is very proper when required, but it is no less proper and essential that if the government export specie, it may take measures and give encouragement for its importation from other quarters. It cannot exist on such a footing. The bank was no longer independent after governor-general Vanden Bosch gravely communicated that unless his views were met, he held the power to cancel its charter. Yea, John Bull, you may stare, and exclaim: A governor-general to snap his fingers at a deed of prerogative, and to possess a power to tear up a royal charter when he pleases, which was granted by majesty for the term of 20 years! Oh ho! say you,—mark the end of it.

—But this article is already too long, and we shall finish it with a short moral. Look at those brothers, Cause and Effect, how boldly they march down hill together. "Prenez garde," cries the latter, as they get to a precipice, "it is all your fault if we go over." "I was humming, said the elder," the old tune of monopoly, and had just got to my favourite stanza beginning with, 'I'll seize all and hold all,' without thinking of"—Here they disappeared and there is a small hiatus,—which—may be filled up, and chronicled at no distant period.

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THE PADRIES OF SUMATRA

(Written in 1822.*)*

The subject which has caused so much bloodshed and misery in the interior of Sumatra was first agitated by the tooankos of Penninjowan and Ampat Kotah and tooanko Samahrang, chiefs and priests of countries in the province of Aggum, but their opinions did not extend to compulsion or offensive operation. They rather wished to see the tenets of the koran more practically disseminated, and that the prevalent vices of the community should be gradually relinquished. It fell to the lot of their disciples to enter more actively upon the object of general improvement, after the death of the above chiefs. Hadjie Miseken of Pandye Seekay in the province of Aggum, on his return from Mekka, was the first suggestor and teacher of the present tenets proclaimed by the padries, and in that country the first combination was formed about 23 years ago, but it is only within the last seven years that their operations have become known to us, and that they have openly declared war and extermination to all who refuse to embrace their tenets. The chiefs who first united in the cause were likewise mallims or padries; besides Hadjie Miseken, of Pandye Seekay, who was not a regular mallim, were the tooanko of Kotah Tuah, and tooanko Kotah Ballay Guvah, tooanko of Chandoong, tooanko Kotah Loway, and tooanko Tanjong Mayden of Baiyu, all of the province of Aggum, and at the head of a numerous population. Hadjie Miseken on his return from Mekka, was most zealous in recommending the abolishment of those predominant vices, which lead to ruinous consequences, viz. gambling of all sorts and smoking opium, drinking intoxicating liquors, such as toddy and arrack; to which vices he attributed the commission of murders, thefts, robbery, fraud, and the depraved state of society in his own country. The other rajahs of Aggum felt the inconvenience of this insubordination on their subjects, and were happy to unite with him in his good intentions. Their objects were to induce every person to pray and to quit these injurious practices. Hadjie Miseken himself it is said, had obtained much influence by the generosity of his disposition and his zeal to establish a better feeling among the common people.

It is not to be supposed, that so sudden and violent a change in the state of society could be effected without considerable opposition and that various occurrences of an insulting nature must have occurred on the part of the makka, a name given to those who did not pray, and against whom, the new order of things was particularly directed, and whose vices were so publicly attacked and reprobated. It is said, that they filled the cisterns which are placed near the entrance of the chapels to wash the feet of those who are about to enter, with intoxicating toddy, which gave great offence to the priesthood; and that in many instances, they burnt the chapels. Retaliation was natural, in its various sanguinary and tyrannical forms, when directed by the enraged feelings of a bigotted and uncivilized priesthood. In some parts a compromise was made; cockfighting was permitted at an appointed place, on condition of rebuilding the chapels which had been burnt. Some of the most injurious practices to the peace and safety of individuals were provided against by proportionable punishment, so that the makka were willing to resign some privileges in order to enjoy others unmolested. Nevertheless the makka of most districts, being averse to and indignant at the interference of the priesthood, in their habits and customs, authorized and participated in by their own punghooloos or chiefs, offered a vigorous resistance to all innovation both from motives of interest, and from pride. The mallims having once seriously launched into the contest, were ashamed to retract, and when successful, failed not to indulge their avarice and revenge and hence the origin and cause of the general devastation that has ensued. Their tenets consisted in the propagation and extension of the institutions and laws of the koran, universal prayer by males and females,

the abrogation of all customs and practices at variance with a religious life, and the substitution of fines and penalties on the obstinate and reprobate. So far was well, if they had confined themselves to these objects, but it is too apparent, that as their numbers and success encreased, every crime was committed that avarice and cruelty could suggest. The tooanko of Kotah Tuah was averse to these measures, and though a sincere promoter of the general object in his heart, he joined none of their crusades, and only used his arms for self-defence. It was customary for the padries to declare war against any country which they thought might be overcome either by stratagem or force. When subdued, the villages were delivered up to plunder and then burnt. If the war was protracted, prisoners were sometimes sold and sometimes put to death. The padries without scruple seized at pleasure on the females, married or single, and conveyed them to their respective countries, or put them to death, if opposed; but it is hoped, that these acts have been committed by the hordes whom force of arms only had compelled and united to the fortunes of the padries to reimburse themselves at the expence of their neighbours. After all opposition had ceased, a fine of one catty of gold or 500 dollars was universally levied on the conquered, as the price of peace and conversion. The following orders were general and enforced with the greatest rigour and transgression sometimes punished with death: A man who should dare to shave his beard was fined 2½ dollars. The filing of teeth was punished by the fine of a buffaloe. If the knees were bare, the offender was fined 2 dollars. If the faces of the females were uncovered they paid a fine of ¾ dr. If women quarrelled, 5 soocoos each were levied; and the beating of a child was a penalty of ½ dollar. The seller of a tobacco paid a fine of 5 dollars. The eater of it was put to death and the smoker fined 5 soocoos. Long nails on the fingers, were reduced by cutting the flesh and the nails together. Neglect of matin prayers, 5 soocoos penalty; and repeated neglect, punished with death. The worst characters were appointed by the conquerors to see these regulations enforced, and the love of money in these wretches, produced numerous false accusations, so that the people were oppressed to the utmost, and sought every opportunity of escape. Submission gave no security, for there was always found sufficient *evil* in the conquered to incur a fine.

Fear and not conviction on the part of the inhabitants, has been the principle cause of the success of the padries; in most of the campaigns, rather than suffer the ravages and insults of which their neighbours have been the victims, the inhabitants of some countries have made little or no resistance, while those of others have fled to situations of greater strength. From the commencement of the war to the present period no less than 300 populous districts have been compelled by force of arms to yield to the padries; these districts are situated in the provinces of Aggum, Rennah Leema Poolo and Menangcabow. It is admitted by the moderate order of mallims, that the cause of religion has suffered in the estimation of all those who have not taken a part in these wars; that the original object has been lost sight of from the accumulation of wealth taken from the conquered; that the mallims or padries have shewn themselves unfit propagators of the principles of the mahometan religion and have disgraced themselves by worse vices than those they originally intended to correct. The effects on the conquered externally is lamentably visible, spiritually not yet seen. The commercial part are ruined; the resources of the country shut up; jealousy and mistrust prevail and informers are constantly on the watch to accuse their neighbours; intercourse is stopped, cultivation is at a stand, and they are become a nation of slaves to the will and mandates of their oppressors. It is not to be doubted, that if the principles first promulgated had been enforced by encouragement and good example, as in the instance of the tooanko Kotah Tuah, who converted the whole of the districts of Ampat Kotah by these mild and persuasive means, that a general improvement in the morals of the community would have been the result. At present that is not case. Fear alone keeps the evil from rising. The heart is still the same, it is only the garment that is altered.

The population of the conquered countries I have no means of ascertaining, but, I should suppose that 750,000 souls is under the sum total.

There is not a doubt, that at this moment the converts would rise on their oppressors, if there was a prospect of effectual support, which does not argue much in favour of the practical part of their new tenets, while on the other hand, it is equally evident, that properly enforced, they would have been respected and in time obeyed. I cannot therefore take upon me to say that the improvements are permanently established, for no sufferer will believe otherwise, than that plunder of persons and property was the real object of the padry army, however much

the cause of religion might be in their mouths. The priesthood have got the upper hand and have shared the wealth of the subdued. If their intentions were originally good, there is nothing now to prevent the display of it. But they are not yet satisfied; they have resolved on reducing Passumman and Kunallie and coming north. Their success they attribute to the smiles of providence &c. and act with a confidence that nothing can withstand them or their tenets.

The principal leaders have been Hadjie Misekin, a commoner of Pandye Seekay in Aggum, tooanko Neunchee the chief of bhookit Kummang, tooanko Passumman and tooanko Mooda; the rest are all disciples of these principals, who have risen to public notice on account of their superior audacity and ability in conducting this religious imposition and oppression. Hadjie Misekin is dead; tooanko Neunchee has retired burthened with wealth. Tooanko Passumman is yet alive, and wages war in the interior or paday. This man was a commoner, a native of Bangseh in Renna Leema Poolo; he was once a mallim in Nattal in 1807, from thence he proceeded to Passumman, married there and entered the lists to forward the noble cause. His ability and cunning soon rendered him conspicuous, and he became the successor to tooanko Neunchee, taking at the same time the title of tooanko Passumman.

He is now the chief of all the conquered countries in Menangcabow and Tannah Dattah, and resides in his own country, Bangseh. He was at Nattal in 1810. The whole of the provinces of Aggum, Menangcabow and Renna Leema Poolo are not subdued; one-eighth of each remain. [*Published in the Singapore Chronicle, November* 1827.]

TREATY BETWEEN THE BRITANNIC AND NETHERLAND GOVERNMENTS, MARCH, 1824.

In the name of the most holy and undivided Trinity.

His majesty the king of the Netherlands, and his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, desiring to place, upon a footing mutually beneficial, their respective possessions and the commerce of the subjects in the East Indies, so that the welfare and prosperity of both nations may be promoted in all time to come without those differences and jealousies which have, in former times, interrupted the harmony, which ought always to subsist between them; and being anxious that all occasions of misunderstanding between the respective agents may be, as much as possible, prevented, and in order to determine certain questions which have occurred in the execution of the convention made at London on the 13th August 1814 in so far as it respects the possessions of his Netherland majesty in the east,

Have nominated their plenipotentiaries; that is to say:

His majesty the king of the Netherlands, Baron *Henry Fagel*, member of the equestrian corps of the province of Holland, counsellor of state, knight grand cross of the royal order of the Belgic lion, and of the royal Guelphic order, and ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary of his said majesty, to his majesty the king of Great Britain; And

Anton Reinhard Falck, commander of the royal order of the Belgic lion, and his said majesty's minister of the department of public instruction, national industry and colonies; And

His majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the right honorable GEORGE CANNING, a member of his said majesty's most honorable privy council, a member of parliament, and his said majesty's principal secretary of state for foreign affairs; And

The right honorable *Charles Watkin Wynn*, a member of his said majesty's most honorable privy council, a member of parliament, lieutenant-colonel, commandant of the Montgomeryshire regiment of yeomanry cavalry, and president of his said majesty's board of commissioners for the affairs of India:

Who, after having mutually communicated their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed on the following articles:

Art. 1. The high contracting parties engage to admit the subjects of each other, to trade with their respective possessions in the eastern archipelago, and on the continent of India and in Ceylon, upon the footing of the most favored nation; their respective subjects conforming themselves to the local regulations of each settlement.

2. The subjects and vessels of one nation shall not pay, upon importation or exportation, at the ports of the other, in the eastern seas, any duty at a rate beyond the double of that at which the subjects and vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, are charged.

The duties paid on exports or imports, at a British port on the continent of India, or in Ceylon, on Dutch bottoms, shall be arranged so as in no case to be charged at more than double the amount of the duties paid by British subjects and on British bottoms.

In regard to any article, upon which no duty is imposed, when imported or exported by the subjects, or on the vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, the duty charged upon the subjects or vessels of the other, shall, in no case, exceed six per cent.

3. The high contracting parties engage, that no treaty hereafter made by either with any native power in the eastern seas, shall contain any article tending, either expressly, or by the imposition of unequal duties to exclude the trade of the other party from the ports of such native power; and that, if in any treaty now existing on either part, any article, to that effect, has been admitted, such article shall be abrogated upon the conclusion of the present treaty.

It is understood that before the conclusion of the present treaty, communication has been made by each of the contracting parties to the other, of all treaties or engagements subsisting between each of them respectively and any native power in the eastern seas, and that the like communication shall be made of all such treaties concluded by them respectively hereafter.

4. Their Netherland and Britannic majesties engage to give strict orders as well to their civil and military authorities, as to their ships of war, to respect the freedom of trade, established by art. 1, 2 and 3, and, in no case, to impede a free communication of the natives in the eastern archipelago, with the ports of the two governments respectively, or to the subjects of the two governments with the ports belonging to native powers.

5. Their Netherland and Britannic majesties in like manner, engage to concur effectually in repressing piracy in those seas; they will not grant either asylum or protection to vessels

engaged in piracy, and they will, in no case, permit the ships or merchandises, captured by such vessels to be introduced, deposited or sold in any of their possessions.

6. It is agreed that orders shall be given by the two governments to their officers and agents in the east, not to form any new settlement on any of the islands in the eastern seas, without previous authority from their respective governments in Europe.

7. The Molucca islands, and especially Amboyna, Banda, Ternate and their immediate dependencies are excepted from the operation of the 1.2. 3 and 4. art., until the Netherland government shall think fit to abandon the monopoly of spices: but if the said government shall at any time, previous to such abandonment of the monopoly, allow the subjects of any power, other than a native Asiatic power, to carry on any commercial intercourse with the said islands, the subjects of his Britannic majesty shall be admitted to such intercourse, upon a footing precisely similar.

1. His Netherland majesty cedes to His Britannic majesty all establishments on the continent of India, and renounces all privileges and exemptions enjoyed or claimed, in virtue of those establishments.

9. The factory of fort Marlborough and all the English possessions on the island of Sumatra, are hereby ceded to his Netherland majesty, and his Britannic majesty further engages, that no British settlement shall be formed on that island, nor any treaty concluded, by British authority, with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

10. The town and fort of Malacca, and its dependencies, are hereby ceded to his Britannic majesty, and his Netherland majesty engages for himself, and his subjects, never to form any establishment on any part of the peninsula of Malacca, or to conclude any treaty with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

11. His Britannic majesty withdraws the objections which have been made to the occupation of the island of Billiton, and its dependencies, by the agents of the Netherland government.

12. His Netherland majesty withdraws the objections which have been made to the occupation of the island of Singapore by the subjects of his Britannic majesty.

His Britannic majesty, however, engages that no British establishment shall be made on the Carimon isles, or on the island of Battan, Bintang, Lingin, or on any of the other islands, south of the straits of Singapore, nor any treaty concluded, by British authority, with the chiefs of those islands.

13. All the colonies, possessions and establishments, which are ceded by the preceding articles, shall be delivered up to the officers of the respective sovereigns, on the 1st of March 1825. The fortifications shall remain in the state in which they shall be at the period of the notification of this treaty in India; but no claims shall be made, on either side, for ordnance, or stores of any description, either left or removed by the ceding power, nor for any arrears of revenue, or any charge of administration whatever.

14. All the inhabitants of the territories, hereby ceded, shall enjoy, for a period of six years, from the date of the ratification of the present treaty, the liberty of disposing, as they please, of their property and of transporting themselves without let or hindrance, to any country to which they may wish to remove.

15. The high contracting parties agree that none of the territories or establishments, mentioned in articles 8, 9, 10, 11, or 12. shall be, at any time, transferred to any other power. In case of any of the said possessions being abandoned by one of the present contracting parties, the right of occupation thereof shall immediately pass to the other.

16. It is agreed that all accounts and reclamations, arising out of the restoration of Java, and other possessions, to the officers of his Netherland majesty in the East Indies, as well as those, which were the subject of a convention, made at Java, on the 24 of June 1817, between the commissioners of the two nations, as all others, shall be finally and completely closed and satisfied, on the payment of the sum of one hundred thousand pounds sterling money, to be made in London, on the part of the Netherlands, before the expiration of the year 1815.

17. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged, at London, within three months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same & affixed thereunto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the seventeenth day of March, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and twenty four.

(*Signed*)

[*L. S.*] GEORGE CANNING

[*L. S.*] CHARLES WATKIN WILLIAMSWYNN.

SPEECH OF THE BARON VANDER CAPELLEN, ON RESIGNING THE GOVERNMENT OF NETHERLAND'S INDIA.

"I have this day convocated all the servants of his majesty the king, who are present at the metropolis, to assist at the solemnity at which I am happy to see those with whom I have, during a series of years, stood in intimate relation, and whom I to-day address for the last time as governor-general and representative of the king in these colonies.

"It is also gratifying to me to see here assembled the principal inhabitants of this place. The object of this solemnity is known to you all.

"After having been invested with the dignity of governor-general of Netherland's India and captain-general of his majesty's military and naval forces for about ten years, I am now at the point of resigning that dignity and of delivering it over to *him*, who, after having been my faithful coadjutor, is now called by the king provisionally to exercise the dignity of governor of these countries and to receive from my hands the captain-generalship by sea and land.

"I cannot, however, give up that authority, I cannot part from you without, at this solemn moment, speaking a word to you, and publicly uttering some of the sentiments which penetrate my soul.

"It is also a sacred duty to myself to render an account of the motives which induce me at this moment to relinquish the government and to return to the Netherlands.

"When after having run thro' an active career in different relations under his majesty's eye he was pleased to nominate me commissary-general and governor-general over Netherland's India, now more than ten years ago, and in obedience to his majesty's commands and honored with my sovereign's confidence, on my arrival here I obtained his majesty's promise after the expiration of five years to return to my native country. The transcendant marks of royal approbation which fell to my share during the first years of my government and his majesty's desires respecting my augmented allowances drew the period out insensibly until, in the course of the year 1823, I obtained in the most flattering manner his majesty's positive consent to leave this country towards the end of 1824 and to transfer to the lieutenant-governor H. M. De Koek, the provisional charge of my government,

"At the receipt of this intelligence all the parts of my government were quiet. Java particularly so. I did not hesitate to undertake a voyage to the eastern part of the archipelago to visit the Moluccas and Celebes and to convince myself with my own eyes of what was possible to be done towards the improvement of that part of his majesty's possessions. I carried into execution an intention which I had long entertained but was always prevented by various circumstances from carrying into effect earlier. I undertook this voyage in the beginning of 1824 with an intention, after my return to spend some months on Java, and towards the end of that year to leave this country and return to Europe.

"A short stay at the Moluccas, where for 200 years no governor-general had shewn himself, convinced me soon of the expediency of such a voyage. I was not long in discovering an extensive field for the introduction of improvement and for the reformation of institutions, which thro' the lapse of time had become legal and which therefore could not be altered by the local authorities, altho' animated by the best will and endowed with the greatest abilities, but which nevertheless required to be provided for.

"I found particularly in the Amboyna islands a population oppressed and impeded in its natural liberty from the consequences of a long established system of monopoly, requiring the paternal assistance of the government in many respects, and which in one word exhibited the greatest contrast to the happy population of Java; subjects of the same king but being under so much milder institutions. To introduce an entire and sudden change in the old system exceed-

ed my powers, and would moreover for many reasons have been impolitic. I was thus obliged to confine myself in the first instance to improve, to soften and to concede where it was most required;—to provide for a better police, judicial institutions for the security of persons and property and as much as possible for an adequate remuneration for labour, and for the protection of a good but oppressed people, reserving to myself after my return to Batavia to consult with the members of the government, respecting the further means of the great reformation, i. e. *to effect the abolition of the system of monopoly*, or at least to prepare for it. In how far I have succeeded with the first part of my resolutions the orders issued in the Moluccа islands may determine. I completed the last part after my return, by propositions humbly submitted to his majesty respecting this interesting subject and of which the result is expected.

"Circumstances known to every body considerably protracted my stay on the island of Celebes. All my attempts to conclude reasonable treaties with the kingdom of Boni and the other allies of the government did not succeed as far as regards the first named. My correspondence with the queen of Boni during my stay at Macassar and my verbal communications with her ministers can shew whether I could have gone a step further for them without committing the dignity of the Netherland's government and without returning the fidelity of our allies with faithlessness. In my endeavors to prevent a war made on us by Boni and its allies in the most unjust manner, I leave it to every impartial judge to decide whether I have not always been animated with the most pacific sentiments and whether it can be imputed to *me* that the flame of war has raged in Celebes. On my return to this island in October 1824 this was not yet ended; on the contrary an augmentation of our military forces was urgently required and I issued orders to that effect.

"The prolongation of this war which commenced under my government and during my stay in Celebes, the state of the public finances, which notwithstanding our wealthy resources, by an unexpected decline of the price of the produce of the government and thro' a concurrence of numerous circumstances have been brought into such a state of momentary embarrassment, that vigorous and energetic measures became unavoidable to effect an entire re-establishment; the information that I had, that the result of these measures which I felt it an incumbent duty on me to adopt immediately, could only be obtained after the lapse of several months, were so many reasons which induced me, after mature deliberation and deep reflection, and an utter disregard of all personal wishes and interests which called me back to my native country to continue to hold the reins of government in my hands; and in the mean time to strain every nerve to improve the state of affairs for the well-being of Netherland's India.

"The power of Boni after the chastisement of that kingdom, by the valiant troops of our king, under the command of major-general Van Geen is broken in such a manner that if they ever hereafter conduct themselves inimicably towards the Netherlands government, we will be able with far less exertion to curb their evil disposition. The finances not being yet restored, I was not to have the pleasure of witnessing a favorable result of my measures. Circumstances at once without the fault and beyond the control of the supreme government, have frustrated these measures.

"In the mean time, his majesty has thought proper to assist in a different way, and the necessary orders have been issued a considerable time ago. We may thus trust that in a short time the embarrassment of the moment will be provided for. His majesty's wisdom, his paternal solicitude, will no doubt point out a plan of fundamental restoration of what ought to be restored, and the means of carrying the same into effect.

"Without new and entirely unexpected events which for a moment have come to disturb the tranquillity of this blessed island, I should, without hesitation or delicacy have undertaken at the end of the year the long wished-for return voyage, and surrendered the government. Now, however, that a rebellious Java prince has become faithless to his own court and the government, and has raised an insurrection in the heart of Java in a most unexpected manner which requires the constant solicitude of the government, connected with energetic measures, I have again been obliged to enquire of myself what my duty, the only spring of my proceedings, required of me and whether I would be justified in my own conduct and before Netherland and Netherland's India at this moment to withdraw from the government and to quit Java, whether I do well, after having enjoyed so many good days, in the moment of distress to leave it and to resign the government into other hands? The road, however, I have to pursue has been pointed out to me, I shall follow it with confidence. His majesty has approved of my protracted residence in India, but his majesty commands me positively to proceed on my return voyage, at the expiration of the year 1825, in order to furnish his majesty with

elucidations respecting various matters. This positive command has acquired additional strength since the appointment of an officer high in rank, who is to proceed to this country by order of his majesty, has been made known, but I obey that command particularly with confidence, because I confide in the result, as I deliver the command to a man who, during a series of years, has rendered signal services, and who has never been deficient in all, that duty, zeal and attachment to king and country could expect from him. Was this otherwise, I should not now be able to leave Java with a tranquil mind, and might feel myself in difficulty respecting the choice of my duties.

"As every other honest manager, whether he be placed in a high or low situation is bound when he has attained the close of his administration to render an account to himself and to his master in how far he has executed his charge, I have now arrived at the point to require of myself whether I have fulfilled my duties and conformed to the spirit and object of my mission.

"The final judgment of this I must leave to our gracious master our king himself, after having submitted to him a true and faithful account, not only of all my proceedings during an almost ten year's administration but also of the motives in which they originated.

"It does not become me particularly at this solemn meeting to express my opinion on that subject. But I can give myself the testimony with perfect confidence, that in all my proceedings none excepted, my motives have been pure; the well-being of Netherland's India I have always had in view. I have always promoted the prosperity of its inhabitants wherever such could be done without encroaching upon other duties and with my whole soul, I have been, and shall be, to my last breath attached to these inhabitants.

"To will and to accomplish the good are quite different things. The circumstances are in the hands of providence. He conducts our fate, and it has not been given to us weak morals to obtain that result which our best endeavours made us anticipate with almost certainty.

"The difficulties of different kinds which I have experienced during the time of my administration are in a great measure known. Many I have endeavoured to overcome and to remove, by none have I allowed myself to be frightened from endeavouring to accomplish the good and to proceed on the road which my duty pointed out to me. I have not always been fortunate in attaining my object, and my endeavours and exertions have not produced the wished-for result, and if my motives have been misunderstood, I console myself with the consciousness that I have acted according to the light which was given me.

"I may have erred in the choice of the means; others in my place might have adopted better measures, but I yield to none with respect to ardent desire to co-operate with all my energy towards the prosperity and happiness of Netherland's India with an eye to our dear native country, and that I have always to the utmost of my duty adopted the best means to attain that object.

"This much I have thought it right to speak of myself on this occasion. I shall not enter into an account of the different measures in the various departments of political economy. I shall merely hint at a few points.

"When I was put at the head of the administration by the commissioners-general, the system after which the same was to be governed was laid down.

"The possessions beyond Java had hardly been brought under Netherland's authority, nay some had not even been transferred;—as the new inhabitants were brought into operation and attained a more extensive development, the government must, of course, become more extended. The consequences of this extension have been favorable. The revenues had attained a height particularly during the first years which could not have been anticipated, particularly those revenues which are less dependent upon the price of our produce in other parts of the world, had risen from year to year, a proof added to so many others of the encreasing prosperity of the population.

"The late instituted courts of justice particularly those for the benefit of the natives have constantly occupied the attention of the government. Every measure adopted under my administration had a tendency more and more to confirm the independency of the higher and lower tribunals.

"Prompt and undelayed justice has been afforded the Javanese, together with the Europeans and people from other countries living amongst us throughout all the government provinces in Java. The judicial institutions have received modifications and amendments, others are prepared and brought to maturity for the interest of the population and of justice; also in the cities of Batavia, Samarang and Sourabaya, the native population have been withdrawn from the complicated forms of the European courts of justice, and they now enjoy the privilege

of being tried in civil as well as criminal cases by native courts. For a good organization of these courts due care has been taken. Almost at all the principal places new prisons have been constructed.

"The government have not lost sight of the foreign trade as well as that along the coast of Java; in that respect they have been guided by experience. Wherever there existed impediments, I have endeavoured to remove them. The exemption of duties upon the produce of the archipelago in all the ports of Java, the abolition of the government salt monopoly in most of the dependencies, and of the unnecessary formalities, on the arrival and departure of native vessels, as well as the toll-posts on the government territory; further, the opening of the teak forests for the purposes of ship-building are all measures adopted with a view to encourage the native trade. The building and maintaining of a number of armed cruizer-prahus along the whole of the coast, supported by the colonial ships of war were to protect the navigation against the piracies formerly so frequent. The newly-established entrepot in four parts of the island of Java and some of our dependencies, combined with the additional liberty of trade granted to those ports, will soon have the effect to enliven that trade and make it flourish. In making regulations respecting trade and navigation, I have endeavored to reconcile the interests of all and to let them enjoy all possible liberty, to protect foreign, as well as national traders and to promote their interests. I could have in doing so, never permitted myself to lose sight of the circumstance, that Netherland's India is no independent state, but must be considered purely as a possession of the Netherlands, and that its first destination and obligation, is, to be serviceable to the mother country with all its resources.

"Agriculture has received the greatest protection and encouragement on the part of the government; for a confirmation of which, let the exportation of Java produce for the last three and four years be compared with the former. I leave preparatory measures for the raising of produce for our own as well as foreign consumption; these no doubt will be followed up by the succeeding government with solicitude and care. The proprietorship of land, or more properly speaking, the disposal of the population by Europeans in the interior of Java, I have energetically opposed, because I was convinced it was mischievous. A reasonable indemnification has been secured to all who could lay claim to the same.

"The confined means for the dissemination of science in this country have not been entirely neglected. The Batavian society of arts and sciences has begun to awaken after a long slumber and has already attracted the attention of other countries.

"To industrious enquirers into natural history, the opportunity has been afforded to study the scientific treasures of Netherland's India; in that respect every encouragement has been liberally afforded, and I trust ere long that excellent specimens, the result of their discoveries, will be submitted to the scientific world.

"Every where, and by every possible means, vaccine has been introduced, and if it has been established with difficulty and required many sacrifices on the part of government, it has certainly been no where crowned with better success than in Java. Already the census of the population affords undisputable proofs of this.

"By the re-establishment of the Netherland's authority the instruction of the children was entirely neglected. Now we congratulate ourselves with good and suitable institutions for elementary instruction, being the first step towards reformation and civilization.

"The extremely neglected state of all buildings and public works at the resumption of the Netherland's government in 1826, rendered provisions in that respect unavoidable; setting aside what was required, only what was necessary was done. The housing of the troops, and particularly that of the sick amongst them, was the first work to which the greatest care was devoted, altho' they have not been finished as yet. The pier at Batavia without which the roads within a short time would have been unserviceable, the partial re-establishment of Honrust for the repair of ships which otherwise would be obliged to work up to Sourabaya with great loss, the bridges and embankment of almost all the canals in and about Batavia which had entirely fallen into decay, the construction and repair of good roads in the different parts of Java, and more other works of that sort cost much, but they were in a more or less degree urgently necessary. Whatever was capable of being put off, I have not wished to burthen the expenses of the country with, as the same had already risen high; in consequence thereof the palace destined for the governor-general remains up to this moment in the same state in which the late governor-general D'Aendels left it.

"I would exceed my limits if I was going here to enter into the particulars of all the departments of government—but I can safely declare that not one has escaped the attention of the government; I am bound however, to add, that for the finishing and direction much remains to be done to which partly the way has been pointed out and the means have been prepared.

"The administration of the finances in their manifold branches takes place according to clear prescriptions which have been from time to time amended and simplified by experience. Accountable officers are strictly kept to their accountability agreeably to their instructions. The public financial accounts, the sheet-anchor of every government which is accountable for the employment of the public funds, have made great progress, notwithstanding many impediments and difficulties, and will soon be entirely brought up. To obtain this desired object, I have spared neither exertions nor expence.

"The police has been every year improved and is every where executed with zeal and good success; some essential improvements have been prepared and have almost been matured. The native officers, these useful servants of the state, who formerly did not enjoy adequate salaries and were uncertain respecting their rank in society, are now well, and each according to his rank and employment, remunerated. Fixed regulations determine their situation to the European servants, the honors they have to receive, and what duties to perform, a thing to which they attach great value. To this must be attributed the exactitude with which most of them, particularly the regents, fulfil their official duties; to the good treatment of these distinguished officers must be attributed above every thing, the transcendant proofs of attachment and loyalty in the latter times displayed by them at a moment when rebellious princes of high rank, who, as every body knows, soon can collect followers, have neglected no means to shake the loyalty of our faithful regents. Never has their loyalty been shewn so conspicuously, perhaps never has it been of more importance, than during the months just past.

"The native population has every where and as much as the government has been able to effect it, been treated with mildness and, where it was necessary, with energy. The constant care of the government to promote the knowledge of the native languages and that of their manners and customs, amongst those of the officers who were in continual communication with the natives, combined with severity against all extortion, ill treatment and illegal demands against the common people has been productive of the most beneficial consequences. Prosperity reigns amongst the natives every where, except where the fatal insurrection of Djoejokarta spreads its baneful influence.

"By a well regulated post establishment and roads and bridges carefully kept in repair, the speedy and regular communication between the different parts of the island has been secured; beneficial steam-boats of which already one constructed on this island has been set afloat, will soon improve and shorten the reciprocally difficult communication between the different parts of Netherland's India; when these vessels shall have been introduced then first the scattered parts of the archipelago will become a whole. The benefits of this measure are incalculable.

"The colonial marine which have, particularly during the last years, done so many beneficial services but have caused considerable expences, may be reduced to a small number as soon as his majesty shall be pleased to listen to my urgent request to send out some armed steam-boats. The piracies will in a great measure be annihilated by these vessels.

"Let us cast a glance on our possessions. I have already spoken of the Molucca islands and the government of Macassar. Both require a fostering hand; with patience and good management the result will be favorable. The island of Timor has been hitherto of little importance to the government. It possesses however, resources which have not yet been opened. Time will shew what influence the establishment of our neighbours on Melville island will have on our eastern possessions.

"The west coast of Borneo occupied by us since 1818, has given me great care. Invited by the native princes to re-occupy our old station amongst them, to guard them against piracies, and to protect them, the government yielded to their wishes. The sultans of Pontianah, Sambas and Mampawah have, without interruption and even in difficult circumstances, given convincing proofs of their loyalty and attachment to the Netherland's government. The administration has been regulated gradually and the revenues of the government as well as of the princes, have encreased. With the neighbouring petty states treaties have been entered into for the protection of commerce, the suppression of piracy and the better regulation for internal government; in doing which, that desirable object of civilizing the Dayah population has never been lost sight of. Our officers on that coast, however, have met with great dif-

ficulties from the opposition of the Chinese in the mine districts, who are of the very worst kind, and accustomed to a licentious and independent life, can with difficulty be subjected to a regular government. It has been necessary to inflict a chastisement on that population. If they do not tender their submission soon, the government will be obliged to resort to severe measures again. According to the latest intelligence, however, this unruly people seems to be inclined to submission. Tranquillity once restored, the coast which has cost so many sacrifices offers good prospects.

"Banjermassin is perfectly quiet; trade flourishes and the pepper cultivation begins to revive; the newly elected sultan shews good disposition and attachment to the government. The recent treaties fix his relation to us and secure to him and his dependants their advantages under a good administration; this possession is interesting and will become still more so.

"Rhio has become of more consequence since the cessation of our establishments on the peninsula of Malacca, and the acknowledgement of the neighbouring foreign settlement of Singapore. The princes give us continued proofs of the best disposition toward us, and of gratitude for the good treatment they have received at our hands. Pepper and gambier have increased; the trade is not inconsiderable and in good hands. Rhio is a settlement which we ought to prize highly. The west coast of Sumatra has assumed a different appearance since the cession of the English possessions to our king. Padang and its dependencies during the late years required great sacrifices from us. The war with the fanatical Padries was unavoidable for the preservation of our possessions. Our brave soldiers had to combat obstinately and great expences have been required to secure the territory conquered from the padries, and to defend our frontiers. At last our resident has succeeded in concluding a treaty of peace with the surrounding padry districts consistent with the dignity of the government. It is more than probable that the remainder of these fanatical chiefs will follow the example thus given them. This step is important; it lays the foundation for the pacification of the whole of the west coast of Sumatra, opens the road for the transport of the richest produce from the most interior parts of the island and by an increasing trade must soon render the ancient empire of Menangcabo flourishing. The union of Bencoolen and it's dependencies has rendered new measures necessary. The whole administration of the west coast has been placed under one police officer. Regulations for import and export duties have been framed and have been founded on the principles of free trade and general protection. This protection has also been secured to the spice-planters of Bencoolen who are now subjects of the king. An officer of ability sent from here, has been directed, after an accurate investigation, to establish and regulate the administration of justice upon the best principles with a due regard to the existing laws, manners and customs of the native population.

"The kingdom of Palembang, formerly the theatre of so much war and so much glory, enjoys now after the dethroning of the faithless and ungrateful sultan, perfect tranquillity. Our establishment here was expensive, but it was necessary.

"The island of Banca, quiet within, continues to provide our stores from its rich tin mines with that metal. An enquiry of professional men respecting the introduction of improvements in the working of the mines, has been constituted by my orders, the result of which is expected; the unhealthiness to which so many fell a sacrifice in 1824 has now mostly ceased. Armed vessels stationed on these seas and the re-establishment of the Netherland's authority on the island of Billiton, have considerably reduced piracy,— the scourge of trade and navigation. The arrangements lately entered into with the sultans of Lingen and Rhio, if faithfully adhered to, will conduce much to the further suppression of these depredations. The relation of this government with those of the other European nations is perfectly friendly. The principle and mode of the late transfer of possessions in consequence of a treaty recently concluded between our king and his majesty the king of Great Britain, offer the clearest evidence of the reciprocal desire of accommodation with which these measures have been carried into effect and make us confidently anticipate, that the pacific spirit in which the treaty has been concluded will never be departed from. Moreover, the most positive commands have been given to our officers to that effect. With the governor-general of British India I have always kept up an amicable correspondence, notwithstanding, that I, during the first years of my government, had often felt it my duty to complain to him of some of his subordinate officers who, exceeding their orders, had encroached upon the sovereign rights of the Netherlands.

"The navy and army under my command, I have endeavored to maintain in good order, assisted by the faithful and zealous co-operation of intelligent commanders, given to assist me,

by the king. How could I do otherwise than take the greatest care of these men? They have never fallen short of the expectations entertained of them. How many proofs have they given in this archipelago under my government of their courage, judgment and loyalty! Every day brings new proofs under my eye. Much has been required of them and more have they performed. Did their actions not plead for them they should find in me a zealous advocate with our king. Happy will be the time when they shall repose upon the laurels they have earned! Already too long have I spoken of the past. May the time to come and particularly the year we have just entered into be as happy and blessed for my ever dear Netherland's India, as my wishes are ardent and sincere.

"The dark clouds which a short time ago covered the horizon, have in some measure been cleared up; but they are not yet dispersed. However much the Djoejo-karta rebels may have lost of their party, however considerably their means may have been curtailed by the measures adopted, the sword cannot be sheathed before their principal chiefs have been subdued. We may hope with good grounds that, that period is not far distant. The good management and the indefatigable zeal of our officers, the fidelity and co-operation of the court of Soura-karta, and that of many princes and chiefs of Djoejo-karta who have continued on our side, the attachment of all the native officers to the Netherland's government, added to our own means in the hands of an intelligent and valuable commander, make me anticipate a speedy and favorable termination. This rebellion once quelled; assistance from Europe and the supreme government of Netherland's India, calmness, wisdom and energy in the measures to be taken and the orders to be issued, and it cannot fail but the clearest days will again, as of old, shine over Java and Netherland's India."

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MACASSAR WAR.

By late and well-authenticated accounts, it appears that the town of Supa had been captured by the Dutch troops in a third assault. The queen of Boni then finally declared war against the Dutch; which was a signal for a general rising of all the nations bearing the Bugis name; which embraces nine-tenths of the most civilized portions of Celebes. Colonel de Steurs of the governor-general's body-guard next attacked a fortified position of the queen of Boni, and was repulsed. In another quarter a Dutch officer and 25 men were put to the sword by the Bugis. In this state of things the Dutch from the very small number of their troops have been compelled to abandon their recent acquisitions and to concentrate themselves at the town of Macassar. A reinforcement of 100 men has sailed from Batavia which it is expected would reach Macassar about the beginning of the present month.

The native accounts state that the places captured by the Dutch have not only been retaken, but that the Bugis have possessed themselves of the Dutch provinces of Bonthain, Bolicomba and Marus, while they have extended their incursions to the very suburbs of Macassar itself.

The causes of the war, after all our enquiries, remain still in considerable obscurity. An intolerable share of insolence, always equivalent among these people to open defiance, is said to have been displayed by several of the native chiefs on the arrival of his excellency the governor-general at Macassar. The petty prince of Ternate who ought by custom to have sent a mission to Macassar to meet the governor-general, was foremost in this contemptuous conduct, actuated by some of the superior chiefs. A remonstrance was followed by a rude message of defiance, in which the governor-general was informed, that if he had any specific message to deliver to his majesty of Ternate, from his brother of the Netherlands, he might repair in person to Ternate, and there make it known. This was of necessity, followed by an immediate declaration of hostilities against him, and the boaster was, with little trouble, driven out of his kingdom. If the Dutch government indeed, was determined at all risks to maintain its stationary supremacy in Celebes, we cannot conceive what other course it could well have followed; for if it had tamely submitted to this first insult, fresh ones would have been added, and sooner or later they must have been involved in a war, which to all appearance was premeditated by the native states.

The natives make it out that the Netherlands government proposed to the Bugis tribes, a new treaty, containing such stipulations as the following: That the whole of the Bugis nations should acknowledge themselves to be no more than vassals to the European government:—that no sentence of death should be carried into effect without the confirmation of the Dutch authorities:—that no appeals to arms should be made without the sanction of the European authority:—that all quarrels arising amongst the Bugis nation, should be submitted to the arbitration of the Dutch whose award should be final:—that the feudatories of the state of Boni should communicate directly with the European government and not, as heretofore, through the mediation of their acknowledged liege; and finally that the Dutch fiscal regulations as far as concerned matters of trade, should be in full force and operation along the whole of the Bugis coasts, and especially that no Bugis prahu should quit a port of Celebes without being furnished with a Dutch register and pass-port.

It is probable there is much exaggeration in these statements; but it may be safely averred that if one half of the demands in questions were made, the treaty could not have been construed by the Bugis into any other meaning, than a tame and virtual relinquishment of sovereignty; and it was scarcely reasonable to expect, that a people long accustomed to exercise a wilful independence, always pertinacious to maintain it, and ever the most impatient of restraint, of all the inhabitants of the archipelago, should have quietly submitted to the proffered yoke.

To render the operation of a treaty founded on such principles practicable, it appears to us, that the taming and discipline, of a 7 years war, would, in the first instance, have been requisite, and then a standing force of perhaps 10.000 men to maintain the new order of things. The waste and folly of such a project would be obvious, and it would require considerable ingenuity to hazard even a conjecture respecting its possible benefits.

It has always appeared to us that an European government whether Dutch or English, and taking its own interests only into consideration has no business whatever in Celebes, or at least no business there while it aims at exercising a sovereign and general controul, to which, from the very nature of things, its power is utterly inadequate. Over a docile and dense population, and a fertile land like that of Java, the substantial benefits of European government are readily secured to the community, because the submissiveness of that people and the productiveness of the country, afford the ready means of supporting those civil and military establishments, but chiefly the latter, which are capable of maintaining that peace, order and tranquillity which are *some compensation* at least for the domination of strangers and the forfeiture of national independence. The case is widely different with Celebes, where the land is of inferior fertility, the industry of the country unavailable for taxation and the people untractable. Here no great establishment can by possibility be maintained by an European power. The military force can never be such, from its numbers or respectability, as either to save the people from aggression from abroad, or protect them from anarchy and rapine at home. Nor can the civil establishments in any manner be competent to secure even so skilful and efficient an administration of justice, as is enjoyed by the people through the natural operation of their own rude laws. The nominal domination of a few hundred strangers, (for the European masters of Celebes of whatever nation have never exceeded this amount,) must have a very opposite effect to that of benefiting a population, said to exceed a million in number. Its evident tendency must be to enfeeble, embarrass and irritate the native administration and thus to weaken the laws, to impede the course of social improvement and to breed anarchy and warfare. In proof of all this, it is only necessary to challenge the advocates of interference to shew a single benefit, which the natives of Celebes have gained from their connexion with Europeans. The *political* relations which have subsisted between them and the Dutch, or the English acting in the place of the Dutch, have now subsisted for 170 years, out of which 40 or a fourth of the whole time have been spent in actual warfare!!. The manners of the people who by the way, had made a remarkable start in civilization not long before the commencement of the era in question, have since continued strictly stationary. Assassination and slavery, are just about as prevalent as they were in the beginning of the connexion and European science and civilisation have not thrown one ray of light over the island of Celebes, and in a word, the effectual protection which the institutions of Europe afford on that island, extend to the range of the guns of Fort Rotterdam but not one yard further.

[*Published in the Singapore Chronicle, November* 1824.]

THE INSURRECTION IN JAVA.

Salumba, 1st. September, 1825.

To The Editor of the Singapore Chronicle,

Sir,

Some of your correspondents from Batavia have no doubt informed you of the disturbances which broke out at Djoejo-karta about the 20th July, when the pangerangs *Diepo Negoro* and *Munkoo Boemie*, uncles and guardians to the young sultan, left that city at the head of their followers and were soon after joined by several others princes and nobles, when they issued a proclamation calling on all true musselmauns and Javanese to join their standard in defence of their religion and country, to assist in driving their oppressors out of it, and ordering them at their peril to pay no more *pajak* (taxes) to the European government.

The expedition to Macassar and the subsequent occupation of Bencoolen had so drained the island of troops, that at the moment this insurrection broke out there were not 600 Europeans in the centre division!—at Batavia not so many, and for Sourabaya only 15 men could be drawn! It is not my intention at present to discuss the propriety or expediency of a course of policy which reduced the island to this defenceless condition but to shew the critical situation of the colony at that moment; a situation which the Djoejo princes appear to have been fully aware of and to have chosen their time accordingly.

The news of the insurrection reached Batavia on the 25th July; and on the 26th. the Lieut-governor-general D'Kock set off for Solo. All the European troops that could be collected were marched from Samarang on the first news of the disturbances, under the commanding officer of the division and had reached Djoejo; but in place of being able to act offensively, were found barely sufficient for the protection of that place, in the neighbourhood of which, the rebel princes had fixed their head-quarters, and were harassing the garrison with continued attacks. They had also intercepted the communication with Solo and had attacked Mugelan the capital of the Kadu, from whence they had been repulsed with difficulty by the united efforts of the few troops and burghers which the place contained.

On the general's arrival at Solo where more troops had been collected, he detached colonel Cochius with a force to open the communication with Djoejo and carry supplies to the garrison. This service appears to have been ably performed and with very trifling loss, but with great fatigue, the colonel's line of march having been continually harassed during his progress by large bodies of the insurgents. From Djoejo he marched to the relief of Mugelan which was at that time in considerable danger and from thence crossed over to Salatiga and returned to Solo.

The exact position of the rebel princes does not appear to be ascertained; which is one of the worst features of the insurrection, as it cannot but be known to most of the native chiefs in Djoejo and Solo. They are reported to be within 7 or 10 miles of Djoejo, with a formidable force in regard to numbers; while their emissaries the priests are dispersed all over the country instigating the people to rise, in which they have hitherto been too successful and the work of devastation has been carried on in the native provinces, the Kadu and Paccalongan to a considerable extent. The whole country between Djoejo and Klatter has been laid waste and the villages burnt. In many parts of the Kadu the same work has been going on, and the forest of Wellerie in the districts of Paccalongan was for some time in the possession of the insurgents who burnt the bridges, intersected the road with deep ditches, cutting down large trees across it, carried off the post-horses, and thus for a while cut off the communication between Samarang and Batavia. Col. Claereus who was dispatched from Buitenzorg with a party of dragoons and was joined at Paccalongan by reinforcements of European infantry from Samarang, succeeded in clearing the forest and reopening the communication. He has since pursued the insurgents with such persevering zeal and ability that he has driven them out of that district.

It appears that a considerable insurgent force has assembled in the district of Grobogan to the S. eastward of Samarang under the command of pangerang Serang, where they remained undisturbed, there being no adequate force at the last-named place to send against them.

It is some time since the burghers of Samarang and Sourabaya were called out to serve as *schuttery* (militia) and the code of laws and regulations to which they were subjected published in the Batavia gazette. By these laws every burgher who chose to pay 36 rupees per annum was exempted from personal service. Several English gentlemen who offered to enrol themselves were, at that time, rejected on the plea of their being foreigners and their contributions in money exacted instead.

On the breaking out of the insurrection when all the troops were marched from Samarang the *schuttery* were placed on duty. The English along with some others (Dutch and Americans) to the number of 26 tendered their services as volunteer cavalry and were accepted. They were almost immediately put on duty and acted as a night-patrol, until the news of the assemblage in the Grobogan district when they were ordered to march to *Demak*, about 15 miles east of Samarang, where, with some native troops from Japora, they were posted to prevent the advance of the rebel force of pangerang Serang.

Meanwhile, all sorts of rumours were circulated and greedily listened to at Batavia, where considerable agitation prevailed on account of the very small body of troops that remained, almost inadequate to the protection of their own barracks and magazines. On the 20th ultimo a notice appeared in the gazette calling upon all the christian inhabitants of the place to attend at the resident's office to enrol their names for a militia, or "*schuttery*". Aware of the state of the country and the necessity of dispatching as many troops as possible to the scene of action, all classes hastened to enrol themselves and anxiously sought to volunteer their services for the emergency. The best possible spirit prevailed; but this unfortunately was not properly encouraged, nor of long duration: for shortly after the names were enrolled, the "*schuttery laws*" of Samarang and Sourabaya were, with very slight alteration, published as applicable to the whole body without distinction or exception. These laws—which compel the services of every man between the ages of 16 and 45, subject them to the most degrading pains and penalties at the caprice of every officer placed over them, intermingled the highest and the lowest, the best and the basest, "black spirits and white, blue spirits and grey," in the same ranks, and compelled all without the least consideration for their constitutions or habits of life to undergo severe drilling 3 times a week,—damped, if it did not entirely destroy the ardour which at first prevailed. It must be admitted by the most moderate, that whoever had the task of directing the public energies in a moment of difficulty or danger deserves very little credit, for the business has been managed in the most unskilful and ungracious manner and every one was disgusted at the outset, at the arbitrary system adopted, instead of being cheered and encouraged.

Had the inhabitants of Batavia been invited by his excellency to come forward and assist in this crisis, such is their attachment to the baron Vander Capellen and their respect for his character, that all would have cheerfully come forward and voluntarily subjected themselves to martial law. The drilling which at present they are dragged to, would under such circumstances, have felt comparatively light. Thus the European population have been deprived of an opportunity of manifesting their attachment and his excellency of this satisfactory proof of their zeal and regard which could admit of no doubt, and would have proved superior to all the addresses that can ever be penned.

September 6th.

The drilling of the "*schuttery*" continues to be enforced three times a week with unabated vigour and will only be relaxed when our resident (who is colonel in virtue of his office and the son of the celebrated count Hogendor,) shall think fit. They have also been ordered out on duty and are actually mounting guard at the government house and treasury every day. It is true that none are exempted, the highest and the lowest; civil officers may be seen walking sentry as well as a merchant and a butcher! All are, in short, reduced to the same level, without regard to the differences of feeling and conduct in the different ranks of society which policy and even common sense might have induced them to bring as much together as possible. The two posts which they are at present stationed to guard, are certainly considered the most honorable, but regular troops mount the guard at the rear-admiral's office and those of inferior officers of the staff, which might surely be dispensed with at such a moment. Your readers at Calcutta will learn with surprise that European merchants and gentlemen are doing the duty of

private sentries in this climate; a service which even the private European soldier in Bengal is seldom or never placed upon, but which is generally supplied by the sepoys.

Nothing but the most urgent necessity can justify government in enforcing the services of the inhabitants in the manner they have done and a regard to common decency should have induced them to restrict the services of the troops to such posts as were indispensible. The individuals in the government service sustain no pecuniary loss by attendance on military duties, as whether they are so employed or occupied in their offices they still receive their salaries. With the merchants the case is different, for the neglect of their business which ensues, involves them in certain loss.

You may easily imagine that the commerce of the island suffers and will suffer under such circumstances. There is, in fact, little business to be done, save the shipment of produce previously collected. What with the wretched system pursued in regard to trade, the exorbitant duties and the natural difficulties of the place, it is easy to see that the days of prosperity for poor *Tannah Java* are fled and I fear for ever.

In the midst of all the distress that prevails, there is no one that does not feel for, and sympathize with our worthy and amiable governor-general. He has indeed a difficult task to perform and beset as he is with narrow-minded and mischievous councillors, it is not surprising that he is sometimes missed by them. There are a few, but very few, about him possessed of extended views and high principles, but their voices are too often drowned by the ignorant clamour of the many very opposite characters.

The present difficulty is one, however, which calls for the active exertions and heavy sacrifices of all classes of Europeans and most of them are well disposed to submit to them for the sake of the general safety. It is only to be lamented that such a spirit should have been so unskilfully and ungraciously managed and that the hearts, as well as the hands of all were not sought to be enlisted in the cause. It is earnestly to be hoped, that the necessity for these proceedings soon will be put an end to by the suppression of the rebellion and the punishment of the chief instigators, in the speedy accomplishment of which no one is more sincerely interested than, Mr. Editor,

Your most obedient humble servant,

An unfortunate "*Schutter.*"

[*Published in the Singapore Chronicle, September,* 1825]

This insurrection, the real nature of which could not at first be properly understood, has by the most recent accounts, assumed the most formidable character, and extended itself over an area of above 7000 square miles, embracing the most beautiful and fertile portions of the island, the provinces of Pajang, Mataram, Kadu, Banyumas, and Samarang. A party of insurgents had broken into the fine province of Pakalongan, laying the country waste with fire and sword and entirely demolishing the post-house and bridges. The town was saved by Colonel Claereus, who repulsed them and drove them back into the interior. Another body broke into the district of Kandal a part of the province of Samarang, and was driven back by the exertions of the civil authority. The particulars of this advantage are described in the government gazette. The insurgents are also in great force in Kadu, where they have totally destroyed Magalang the chief-town, and in such strength in the neighbourhood of the sultan's capital as to have made two attempts to capture the kraten or fortified palace; the same place which the British troops, under general Gillespie, took by escalade in 1812. It is reported that they have also attempted to take by surprise the fortified palace of Solo, the residence of the Susunan, the most ancient and considerable of the Javanese princes, and where the commander-in-chief, general D'Koek, is cooped up acting on the defensive, and waiting for reinforcements to take the field. Strong apprehensions are entertained of a rising in Cherribon, a province always peculiarly obnoxious to revolt. The insurgents lay waste every thing in their route, and have already destroyed vast quantities of coffee plantations. The Chinese farmers of the revenue are the especial objects of their hatred, and have been massacred wherever they have been found. The town of Samarang, the second in the island and containing little short of 50,000 inhabitants is in a state of the utmost disorder. The beautiful and romantic road from hence to Salatiga is impassable, and strewed with the bodies of Chinese and natives attached to the European interest.

To meet the danger, the government have called in the assistance of the Madurese according to the practice pursued in former insurrections, and five thousand of them, when the last accounts came away, were daily expected at the seat of the insurrection. These are to act under the authority of general Van Geen, an able and experienced officer who learned the the art of war under Napoleon, but according to our accounts, little reliance can be placed upon this unarmed and undisciplined throng. The troops are returning from Macassar, after losing one third of their number by sickness, and as we early predicted, without having done any thing effectual, so that, there is very little doubt but the Dutch authority in Celebes will soon be reduced, as last year, to the possession of Fort Rotterdam and the town of Macassar.

A detachment of five hundred men had been some time ago ordered to Borneo to suppress the insurrection in that country, but against the immense Chinese populations there, they could have done nothing, and have been recalled to meet the greater danger nearer home. The old sultan of Djoejo-karta, the same who was dethroned by the English in 1812, has been placed for safety in the guard ship lying in the harbour of Sourabaya.

The fears and distress of the government have compelled them to embody all the Europeans at Batavia as a militia, including the British merchants and foreign settlers of every rank. Our countrymen are drilled thrice a week, under Dutch officers and subjected to military law, under rules of great severity, especially for non-attendance. The British had volunteered to serve, embodied by themselves; but their proposal was rejected and the most respectable of them are now compelled to serve in the ranks with the meanest burghers of every complexion. We have not Vattel or Grosius to consult, but we have no hesitation in considering this measure as strictly contrary to the law of nations. In Great Britain at least, neither alien nor denizen is compelled to perform military service, and in Java where they are loaded with disabilities; incapable of holding any public employment; incapacitated from being proprietors of land and subjected to double taxation on account of the staple commodities in which they deal; the case ought to be still stronger in their favor. The principal commercial British establishments now in Java, were there, when the Dutch received the island from us. They had a right to continue there for six years after that event, but in meanwhile took the oath of allegiance. It was long after this that they were subjected to extraordinary taxation and disfranchisement, and is it in equity to be alleged that they can be called upon under such unequality of circumstances, to perform the same military services to the state as the privileged class of the European inhabitants?

It now turns out that the insurrection is far from being confined to the territories of the native princes, but extends to the finest and most populous provinces subject to the European authority, and has in fact originated in excessive and grinding taxation, almost the only cause of rebellion amongst all eastern people. The land-tax originally imposed by the English, indiscreetly burdensome from the beginning, has been greatly enhanced under the Dutch rule. Other sources of revenue such as salt-duties, road-duties, market-duties, tax on slaughtering animals, poll-tax and taxes on the very amusements of the people have been continued or superadded while heavy corvee labor, worse than all the rest, has been imposed. Some of these should have been mitigated and others abolished. By such a measure the productive industry of the country would have been augmented and the legitimate sources of public revenue increased. The first symptoms of insurrection among the Javanese are in general not difficult to suppress; but when once rebellion has acquired head, it becomes most serious and alarming. The last great rebellion continued with little interruption for nine years, during which the finest portions of the island were desolated and the finances of the East India Company ruined. We certainly hope better things from the superior intelligence, energy and resources of the present administration, and whatever may be the termination of the struggle we trust it will teach all governments a lesson of wisdom, justice and forbearance.

We are now enabled to furnish our readers with more authentic details respecting the insurrection than we were enabled to give in our former notices. The revolt, if this be the proper name to give to it, broke out at Djoejo-carta on the 20th of July. Our readers are aware that this place, which contains a population of little less than 100,000, is the capital of the sultan of Mataram the second prince in rank and power in the island and whose dominion still extends over some of the finest provinces of it. The Dutch resident at the court of the sultan had, it appears, directed certain new roads to be made in the vicinity of the palace, in doing which it was considered necessary to pull down a house or tomb, for we are not well informed which, within the premises of the prince *Diepo Nayoro*. This was resisted by

the latter. The Dutch resident persevered, and a retainer of the prince shot one of his agents. This was the signal for revolt, and on the 20th of July the prince *Diepo Nagoro* and *Mangkubumi*, grand uncles to the infant sultan and guardians of the kingdom by the nomination of the Dutch themselves, quitted the city with their numerous retainers, and were immediately followed by many others of the princes in all, as we understand, to the number of twelve. A numerous army was instantly collected which, as already mentioned, occupied the whole of the surrounding country and twice attempted to capture the palace, suffering, on one occasion, the loss of 100 and on another of 80 men. In the meanwhile a second insurgent army, amounting as it is now considered, to from 10 to 12,000 men has been formed to the eastward of Mataram under the prince of Serang, an enterprising young men of 26 or 27 years of age. This force seized and occupied the Dutch province of Grobogan and is the same which defeated the detachment near Damak.

It now appears, upon the receipt of better information, that the insurrection altho' sufficiently formidable, is by no means so extensive as the information given to us led us to imagine. There has as yet been no rising in Cheribon, the Preangan regencies, or Bantam, altho' it has been deemed prudent on the apprehension of such an event to reinforce the garrison of the first mentioned place. The real state of the rebellion may be described as follows. Two native armies of at least 10,000 men each are in the field—the whole central provinces of Java for 100 miles along its length are in a state of partial insurrection, the communication being interrupted—and in many situations within the Netherland territories where the enemy have presented themselves they have been joined by the peasantry as in Grobogan and the too well authenticated case of Damak.

Our readers will expect that we should offer some speculations on the probable termination of the present insurrection, but this is a matter of extreme difficulty and upon which we do not feel ourselves competent to speak with any confidence. The revolt is in the first place of a totally opposite character from any of the previous wars of Java. All former contests originated in quarrels between the native factions of the island in which the Dutch appeared only as auxiliaries. They were, in fact, contests for power between the native chiefs of the country in which the people had little interest and yet they continued, one for near 20 years, one for 3 years, and the last for 9 years. In all these cases the war seldom reached the Dutch provinces, which at the time were governed by their native chiefs and not as now directly by European agency. The present contest is between the Dutch and the inhabitants of the country and there exists no efficient native power either much interested or capable of opposing the insurgents. Java is also, at least, twice as populous as in its former struggles and we may presume also that its inhabitants are more intelligent and capable, as it cannot reasonably be imagined, that the examples of military discipline and European warfare, exhibited before them by the Dutch and English should have been altogether lost upon them. On the other hand the present European government of Java is more intelligent, enlightened, and powerful than its drivelling predecessors, and it may be hoped that a combination of skill and good fortune may place the insurgent chiefs in their hands, and thus happily and quickly terminate the struggle. The military force in Java has, however, in the mean time been dispersed and strangely dissipated upon unworthy objects, and as well on this account as that the season of the rains is fast approaching when European troops cannot keep the field, we are inclined to think that the war must be protracted at least until the month of April or May. The Javanese indeed are naturally of a fickle and inconstant disposition but should they persevere after this and any thing like unanimity be established among them it is not difficult to foresee what must be the issue of a struggle between a nation amounting exclusive of the Sundas and Madurese to at least four millions, speaking the same language—having the same religion—manners—interests, and prejudices; and a handful of Europeans who must then draw all their resources from a distance of 12,000 miles. Were the Javanese equal in energy, and unanimity to the negroes of Haytie which they are not, it is obvious that in their relative position in regard to Holland, compared to that of the former in respect to France, the chances of successful revolt would be still greater.

Accounts have been received fron Samarang down to the 17th of Sept. four days later than the information contained in the earlier columns of this number. The army of the prince of Serang had advanced within a few miles of the town of Samarang after burning Damak and destroying the bridges between it and the last mentioned place. General Van Geen, with 600 European and 2000 native troops had advanced against him, but his march was

greatly impeded by the destruction of the bridges. These obstacles will be greatly increased when he is compelled to pursue the insurgent forces over the almost trackless fields of marsh rice and through the villages, every one of which, embosomed in a thick wood of fruit or ornamental trees, and generally surrounded by a hedge of bamboos, constitutes in fact a strong post or natural fortification of no mean strength. Against such an enemy artillery is impracticable, and cavalry useless; light troops and the bayonet only can avail.

On the 12th instant an attempt was made to set fire to the town of Samarang in which it is alleged that the *Adipati Adimangolo* and his son the *Raden Saleh* have been implicated. These two persons have been seized and imprisoned on board the Dutch men of war in the roads. The *Raden Shukur*, the second son of the *Adipati* effected his escape and joined the insurgents taking the title of *Pangeran Wadono*. Some of our readers are aware that *Adimangolo* was regent or chief of Samarang during the British administration, and that his sons just named are the two youths educated at Calcutta by the late lamented and highly-gifted Earl of Minto. *Adimangolo*, it is scarcely necessary to observe to those who knew him, was considered by the English as a man of prudence, discernment and extended views, far beyond all his countrymen; and it is well known that through his sagacity and industry he had become the wealthiest Javanese subject of the European government. Soon after the restoration of the Netherland authority, however, he feel under its displeasure, and with the principal members of his family, he has been degraded from office for several years. Mr. Crawfurd in his work gives the following character of this chief's family, drawn it may be presumed from his personal knowldege of them in 1816. "The influence of this character was most remarkably displayed in the family of *Adimangolo*, chief of the province of Samarang, a man, for vigour of understanding, far superior to all his countrymen. This respectable chieftain bestowed the most unwearied attention upon the education of his whole family. His wife, born a princess, whom according to the custom of the country, he espoused while yet a girl, he educated, to make her a rational and equal companion, and both she and his three daughters made proficiency in Arabic literature, and were skilled in that of their own country. Two of his sons, upon whom he had bestowed all the education that Java could afford, were sent by him to an English seminary in Calcutta, under the protection of the late lamented Earl of Minto, where they made surprising progress. The eldest, *Raden Saleh*, a youth about sixteen, read and wrote the English language with facility and propriety, and, with the help of a fine ear, acquired so accurate a pronunciation, that his language could not easily be discerned from that of a well-educated English youth. That this was not a mere mechanical acquirement, was satisfactorily proved by the good sense and acuteness of his observations; and it must be acknowledged, that upon the whole, he afforded a most flattering and interesting example of what a liberal education might effect upon the character of the inhabitants of the Indian islands."

On the night of the 2nd of September the detachment of troops sent for the protection of Damak were in hourly expectation of an attack from the insurgents under the prince of Ceram or Serang, but as it did not take place, the Dutch resolved to be the assailants. Accordingly they marched out at 10 o'clock at night with the following force: sixty European sailors with two naval officers and a surgeon—200 Madurese infantry—12 native *gendarme*—20 mounted European volunteers, and two field pieces; the whole under the command of Captain Busckes, who had under him two captains and a subaltern. After a march of nine hours the detachment reached the village of Mintring a little before day-break, where they halted for a moment, recommencing their march at day-light. As they proceeded, a house in an adjoining village was set on fire evidently as a signal to the enemy of their approach. The Madurese attacked the village but met no resistance. After ascending a little eminence, the enemy presented themselves immediately in front of them—not the rabble they had been led to expect, but an army of at least 5000 men, drawn up in a strong position and composed of four regular divisions with a strong reserve. Instead of waiting for the Dutch troops they began immediately with much confidence to manœuvre with an intent to surround them. The detachment was drawn up in order for action—the sailors to the right—the Madurese infantry to the left—the guns in the centre, and the cavalry in the rear. By some unaccountable mistake, the volunteer cavalry were ordered to charge the enemy's flank before a single shot was fired from the field pieces. They attempted to charge accordingly, but some being shot, and the trumpeter sounding a retreat without orders, they were immediately thrown into confusion and broken. The

enemy persevering in their manœuvre to surround the detachment, the infantry was also broken and routed, and every one then did the best he could to save himself. In their retreat the villagers universally rose upon the Dutch troops and it was through them that the principal loss was sustained. The cannon were abandoned after being spiked and of these and the ammunition and musquets of the detachment which had been thrown away, the enemy became possessed. The principal loss has fallen upon the English gentleman-volunteers and the European sailors. Of the former seven have fallen, viz. Messrs. Barrows—McMaster—Sutton—Willis—Lindsay—Hammond and Cameron. Of the volunteers German or Dutch, five have fallen and of the Americans three. Sixteen sailors were also killed or missing and of the whole detachment only 60 persons returned to Samarang.

Batavia the 11th of September.

Three extra posts arrived last night and this morning from the eastward. The accounts from Samarang are satisfactory. The prince of Serang has not attacked Damak, but by the last accounts was marching southward towards Grobogan. At Samarang 50 European and 300 native infantry had arrived from Sourabaya with a considerable body of Madurese auxiliaries. A frigate and sloop of war which had just arrived from the Pacific, had sailed from Sourabaya on the 6th instant for the relief of Samarang and 80 European hussars were collected for the same purpose. General Van Geen, who had just arrived with his personal staff from Macassar, was making great exertions for putting the town in a state of defence. Palisades were erected and ditches dug at the end of the principal streets, while redoubts were thrown up to command the principal avenues. Samarang may now therefore be considered safe altho' a different result might have ensued had the prince of Serang followed up the advantage gained by him on the 3d instant and taken advantage of the general panic which then prevailed. General Van Geen had laid an embargo upon the shipping in the roads but again withdrawn it. The European militia, however, were mounting the regular guards and kept constantly under arms for fear of surprize. The Tumungung of Gagatan, a Solo district between Samarang and Souracarta, has been discovered as engaged in the conspiracy and apprehended, his son being put in charge of the district in his stead. This discovery is considered a fortunate event as it is hoped it may compel the prince of Serang to abandon Grobogan which is adjacent to Gagatan from which he no doubt expected support. At all the other residencies matters are quiet; colonel Claerens with his detachment is stationed in the mountains of Pacalongan and conducting himself with much ability.

Our last accounts extend only down to the 25th of September. General Van Geen having marched in pursuit of the prince of Serang was unable, from the great difficulties of the country, to come up with him. Another Dutch detachment marching from Salatiga attacked and burned the prince's palace at Serang. In the mean while the prince sent a detachment of 400 men into the rear of general Van Geen which interrupted his communication with Samarang, cut off his supplies and forced him to retire upon that place. Samarang itself is considered at present to be secure from all danger. On the 18th of September general Van Geen marched from Samarang to Solo, there to join the commander-in-chief, general De Koek, with the view of advancing to Djoejocarta to attack the principal insurgent force under the princes Dipo Nagoro and Mangkubumi. The latter with a force estimated at 40,000 men are stationed in the beautiful and fertile but, in a military point of view, difficult plain which extends between Djoejocarta and the ruins of Brambanan. It was here that a detachment of his majesty's 22nd dragoons suffered so severely from an ambush in 1812. The insurgents are said to have dug trenches across the great road between Djoejocarta and Solo—to have flooded it by breaking down the water-course and to have planted sharp concealed stakes at frequent intervals. They have made repeated attacks on the palace and quarters of the prince Pakae Alam, a partizan of the Netherland government. In the last of these they had 150 killed and 300 wounded. The Dutch had not a single casualty. The insurgents never bury their dead which are strewed in all directions about the town. The Dutch garrison is reduced to great distress and has actually been driven to kill and eat their own horses. It is much to be apprehended that the insurgents will not permit the commander-in-chief to bring them to action, for it is their system never to risk a battle, but to disperse the moment a force is brought against them. Col. Clarens who has entered the district of Kadu is conducting himself with skill and prudence.

The prisoners who are brought to him are treated with kindness and dismissed with good advice. In this manner he has tranquillized and pacified the whole country along his line of march. The officers in charge of other detachments in the field act a different part and consequently the whole country is in desperate array against them.—*S. C. October, 27th.* 1825.

By the *Eleanor*, we have received accounts from Batavia down to the 29th of October. The insurrection is not only not quelled but has greatly extended itself and the whole of the eastern provinces from Pakalongan to Basuki, a distance of little less than 300 miles, embracing the finest parts of the island, are more or less in a state of insubordination and in correspondence with or influenced by the insurgent chiefs. Rembang—Gressie—Japan—Blora—Sourabaya—Passaroean—Malang and Basuki are mentioned as the most disaffected of the European provinces. The prince Diepo Nagoro has proclaimed himself sultan of Mataram and his sister, a Javanese heroine, heads the insurgents of Japan who are numerous and well armed. All the preparation made by the commander-in-chief, general De Koek, has literally ended in nothing. The Javanese, with a prudence scarcely to be expected, have constantly declined coming to a general action with the Dutch troops, and the latter have been harrassed and exhausted to no purpose in attempting to follow them. No action of any moment has been fought and we hear of no casualty of any consequence, saving a report that the *Raden Shukur*, son of the chief of Sourabaya, one of the youths educated at Calcutta, had been mortally wounded. The rainy season having already set in, the game for the present is given up, and the hopes of the Dutch government rest upon the reinforcements which they expect from Europe. Upon the whole we are inclined to consider that the present is not only the most formidable and general insurrection against the European authority in Java which has ever taken place, but even the most wide-spread combination against European domination which the annals of India have hitherto afforded. The hopes of the Netherland government, it is clear to us, must rest solely upon the probable quarrels and disunion of the natives amongst themselves and not upon an European force, however numerous and well disciplined, for what could they do against five millions of people resolved upon resistance and tolerably united, fighting for their independence among the woods—marshes—mountains, and defiles of a country containing an area of 40,000 square miles ?

The military discipline inflicted upon the English merchants and others continues with little interruption. The only mitigation is a reduction of the drills from thrice to twice a week, but on the other hand they are now compelled to keep guard at unhealthy stations where even European soldiers were never employed before. Several of the European gentlemen had caught violent and dangerous fevers in consequence and we may fairly predict, that if the same rigorous and illegal system is persevered in during the season of the rains, the lives of half our countrymen will be sacrificed. We have not a moment's hesitation in pronouncing that the whole proceeding of compelling resident strangers to perform military service is contrary to the law of nations, and of an arbitrary and illegal character. According to Vatel and Grosius and to common sense a still more respectable authority, persons residing under a foreign government cannot be called upon to serve as soldiers in a civil war, but ought to contribute with their pecuniary means to the defence of the government which gives them protection. This is the utmost length to which the Netherland government is justified in demanding the service of the English, American or other foreign residents, and we think it would be impossible, under the most despotic government in Europe, to shew a case in which further aid was exacted. How untenable such a doctrine is, may be shewn by a single example. What would the Dutch and English merchants of the suburbs of Pera and their respective governments say were the grand Seignor, in consideration of the protection afforded to the said merchants, to call upon them to take arms against the Greeks? We think the conduct of the grand Seignor would be considered unjustifiable even in a Turk; yet the Greeks have been the subjects of the sublime porte for more than three centuries and the people of Mataram with whom the Dutch government are at war, are not the subjects of the Netherland government—only their allies or at best their tributaries, and the governments of the resident European merchants have certainly no cause of quarrel with them. Should this be considered an extreme case on account of the *difference* of *complexion*, an unphilosophical objection by the bye, then we may quote the conduct of one of the worst governments of Europe that of Spain, which in a recent contest with her colonies never for a moment thought of insisting upon foreign merchants taking part in her quarrel by bearing arms.—*S. C. Nov.* 10.

There have been two arrivals from Batavia since our last and our accounts reach down to the 16th ultimo. It is stated that the European government have made proposals of peace to Diepo Nagoro the chief leader of the Javanese upon the basis of his being acknowledged Sultan of Mataram. There had been little alteration in the posture of affairs to the eastward. At Samarang the strictest discipline and constant guard was still kept up, and the inhabitants of Surabaya were kept in continual alarm by the vicinity of a powerful force headed by the Javanese heroine mentioned in a former number. Mr. Smissart who was Dutch resident at Djoejo-karta when the insurrection first broke out has been dismissed, and Mr. Van Sevenhoven, a man of talent and ability, has been appointed commissioner for the districts of Djoejo and Solo.

General De Koek was expected soon to return to Batavia in consequence of the expected departure for Europe of his excellency the baron Vander Capellen whom he is to succeed in the government. General De Koek is considered a prudent and brave officer and as a member of society, he has long been popular in Java. His talents for governing will now be called into action, and his best exertions will be necessary as he will commence his career as governor-general at rather a turbulent period, and with various and numerous difficulties to combat.

The schuttery or volunteers of Batavia have at length been relieved from the most grievous part of their duty—mounting guard. This indulgence as it is termed was not granted until absolutely necessary, as the rains had set in and the continuance of it would have proved fatal to many. [*S. C. December 8th.* 1825.]

The *Rembang*, which arrived from Batavia a few days since brings accounts down to the sixth of December The rainy season had set in with much violence at the seat of war and a complete cessation of hostilities had been the consequence. The Javanese, it is said, were taking advantage of this calm by resuming the cultivation of the soil, and the sowing of paddy was going on as usual in the native provinces. There was little hope, however, of a permanent peace being concluded, notwithstanding negociations had been for some time on foot: indeed, it was fully expected that hostilities would be resumed immediately after the cessation of the rains. The Javanese chiefs who were in arms avoid all intercourse or correspondence with the Dutch, and appear to consider all communion with them fraught with danger to their cause. If this line of conduct is persevered in, it will tend materially to prevent a successful result of the negociations with the chief leader Diepo Nagoro. General de Koek was still at Solo but was expected to return immediately to Batavia.—[*S. C. January, 5th.* 1826.]

The intelligence received from Java by the *Fortitude*, informs us of no important change having recently taken place in the state of the disturbed districts to the eastward. General De Koek had left Batavia about three weeks ago for Samarang but was not accompanied by any fresh supply of troops. Dispatches, however, having been received from Holland up to the earlier part of December mentioning the actual embarkation of a thousand men for Java to be followed shortly by an additional force, it is to be hoped that the lieutenant-governor may soon be in a condition to take the field with an European army of sufficient strength to inspire their native allies with fresh confidence and spirit. In the mean time, from the severe losses sustained through the casualties of war and sickness, the operations of the small number of European troops fit for service are confined to measures of a defensive character in maintaining their principal posts of Djoejo, Solo, Magalan and Samarang. The fidelity of their native allies is therefore of the most material importance to the Dutch cause, and as the most powerful of them, the Solo court, is considered staunch, there does not now seem to be the same probability of defection that might have been reasonably apprehended some months ago.

The prince Manku Nagoro (better known to the English under the title of Prang-Widono) had, in the early part of this month, taken the field at the head of his forces amounting to 4 or 5000 men of which a part is represented as well disciplined. It is stated that he has entered into engagements with the Dutch for the apprehension of Diepo Nagoro and the other insurgent chiefs.

Manku Nagoro is grandson to the prince of the same designation, who, along with Mankubumi in the year 1746, threw off his allegiance to the Solo court in consequence of disgust at the measures pursued by the Dutch governor-general Van Imhoff. The revolt of these princes, it will be recollected, terminated in their establishing their independence, the last as

sultan of Mataram, or Djoejo-carta and the other with an independent principality of four thousand *chachas* or families, after fifteen years warfare which the Javanese describe him as "having carried on *without any wealth but his understanding*." It accords therefore with safe policy (at least the safest that can be pursued under present circumstances) for the Dutch government to repose confidence in Manku Nagoro, as his interests and theirs are intimately connected and there is little danger of his rendering himself too powerful or independent.

In the conduct of the insurgent chiefs there seems to be no general public plan nor arrangement. Diepo Nagoro is represented as a religious enthusiast entertaining no views that are not subservient to the propagation of the mahometan religion and the extinction of all that are not of his faith. The Javanese seldom stop to fight and in this, if they follow it as a system they evince more judgment than their opponents are willing to give them credit for. Their latest movement was an advance to within a few miles of Salatigah from which they retired rapidly on perceiving the approach of a very inconsiderable body of Dutch troops. They retreated to Sello without doing any injury to the coffee plantations along their line of march. [*S. C. April, 26th.* 1826.]

The intelligence from this country conveyed in letters from Samarang presents a dismal picture of the state of affairs and the progress of hostilities in the native provinces. General Van Geen had advanced from Djoejo early in this month at the head of a small body of men comprising the flower of the Dutch force in that quarter. Manku Nagoro, the ally of the Dutch, also took the field with a large force and marched in pursuit of the insurgents. On the 5th instant they encountered a numerous party of the enemy and an action ensued. The insurgents fought with astonishing boldness and resolution, directing their principal efforts against the native portion of the Dutch force under the banner of Manku Nagoro. This chief, after an obstinate conflict, was completely routed and his followers fled in the utmost confusion, leaving three hundred of their number dead upon the field of battle. Our accounts do not state the loss sustained by the Europeans but we believe it was considerable as general Van Geen fell back on Djoejo almost immediately after the battle; not considering his small detachment able to make head against the enemy now elated with their success.

A party consisting of 60 Madurese soldiers under the command of an European officer, while escorting some of the native princes who have adhered to the Dutch, from Dixo to Djoejo were attacked and cut off by a body of the insurgents. The princes (seven in number) were taken and killed on the spot, and but very few of the party had reached Djoejo when the accounts came away. Two of the princes whose lives have been thus sacrified were guardians to the young sultan and brothers to Diepo Nagoro the famous insurgent leader. Their interest with their countrymen was considerable and their presence in the Dutch army kept many of the sultan's subjects from joining the ranks of the enemy. It was feared that the death of these chiefs would be followed by the desertion of their adherents to the side of Diepo Nagoro. [*S. C. August, 17th.* 1826.]

The intelligence by the *Hedleys* from Batavia extends down to the 30th ultimo. The news of an insurrection having broken out in Cherribon had been received at Batavia on the 25th of last month and the town was in consequence thrown into a state of great alarm which was increased by the want of correct information respecting the real extent of the mischief, and the report of a general rising throughout the province. The vicinity of Cherribon to Batavia and the great extent of the province, containing a population of 216,000 inhabitants, almost all Javanese, (for excepting in the towns of Batavia, Samarang and Sourabaya, the Chinese or foreign settlers are not numerous) renders the suppression of any disturbance there and the preservation of order a matter of the greatest importance. The government immediately despatched the few troops who were in Batavia, and even the hussars or body-guard of the governor general were sent off, leaving the protection of the town to the schuttery who have been ordered to do duty in their stead. Several vessels had been taken up and dispatched to Celebes and Borneo for the purpose of conveying the garrisons of the out stations on these islands back to Batavia; the government having resolved to abandon these possessions entirely.

The protracted nature of the war and the spirit of determined opposition lately manifested by the natives of Java and their perseverance after so many defeats, have caused a change of opinion in the councils of the Dutch administration; and they appear to have abandoned all expectations of reducing the natives to subjection or of restoring peace to the country by force of arms. The old sultan of Djoejo, Amangkubumi the second, the same

who was dethroned by the English in 1812 is to be restored to the throne under the former title of emperor of Djoejo-karta. His royal highness has been a prisoner for fourteen years, the last of which he has passed on board of the guard-ship in Batavia roads, whither he was removed at the commencement of the insurrection, for greater security. How strange are the reverses of fortune!! The old sultan landed in state from his floating prison, and was received on shore under a royal salute and other demonstrations of joy. A few days afterwards he appeared at a public entertainment given on King William's birth-day; where, attended by a few followers and splendidly dressed, he received the congratulations of the assembled company, amongst whom were the heads of the Dutch government.

The line of policy now adopted by the Dutch, will, we trust, quickly put an end to all hostilities, and restore quiet throughout the distracted country. It was not, however, known how the proposition for reinstating the sultan will be received by the insurgent chiefs, some of whom may perhaps have formed plans of aggrandizement or usurpation, hostile to the proposed restoration. The conditions upon which the Dutch have agreed to restore the sultan to his throne are not calculated to conciliate an oppressed people, already driven to desperation by the weight of their taxes. We understand that the European government engage to relinquish all claims on the revenue and all right of interference in the government of the country; in consideration of which the sultan engages to defray all the expenses of the war, to make certain roads and bridges, and agrees to various other stipulations which he has probably as little intention as ability to perform.

We look with anxiety for the next arrival from Java which will probably bring us more detailed accounts of the insurrection in Cherribon, and inform us of the effect which the intimation of the sultan's recognition has produced on the great body of the insurgents.

The demand for European goods had revived a little in Batavia, but there was so little confidence amongst the merchants, that no credits were allowed, and all the sales which had been effected were for cash. Some shipments of coffee had been made to Europe at the rate of ten Spanish dollars per picul on board of ship. This is the lowest rate at which the article has been purchased since our occupation of the island in 1811.—*S. C. Sept.* 14.

[*From the Batavia Courant.*]

"Accounts from Souracarta of the 29th August, state that the rebels had posted themselves in the northern division of Pajang, their post extending to the high road between Boyalali and Sourakarta, and had made an attack on Getapan, which was defended by a detachment consisting of 60 foot, 13 horse, 7 artillery men and a party of armed villagers, besides two small pieces of cannon under command of the opziender F. Darlang.

On the 26th the enemy, amounting to between 5 and 600, many of them mounted, made their appearance on the south side of the road, in the neighbourhood of the post station Terras, where the abovementioned opziender Darlang had stationed his detachment, reinforced by lieutenant colonel De Bast, on his hearing of their approach, with 30 hussars. The rebels advanced to the attack of this post with a dreadful yell, on which Mr. Darlang with his sixty fusileers advanced to meet them, leaving behind the guns under protection of the cavalry. After 50 rounds had been fired on our side, which were but faintly returned on theirs, the rebels fled southward leaving 5 of their number dead on the field. The cavalry were prevented from following up our success by a deep ravine.

The conduct of Mr. Darlang in this affair as well as that of Mr. Cushney who served as a volunteer, cannot be sufficiently praised. These gentlemen assisted with effect on a former occasion in repelling a party of the enemy on Boyolali.

On the side of Boyolali the rebels have been so far kept in check by the column under command of colonel De Bast and the Solo princes and regents stationed there, that their intention of forcing a passage to the northward from that point has been entirely frustrated.

The Solo prince Adi Negoro, who, with his own people, had taken post at Krapiak, had been so often attacked by numerous parties of the enemy, that he deemed it advisable to retire upon the high road between Kartasura and Dilangu.

On receiving accounts of the enemy's extending his position further to the northward, general Van Geen marched on the morning of the 26th to Klatten and proceeded the following day to Dilangu; there having met general De Koek, they proceeded together to reinforce pangerang Ingebay, stationed at Kalitan who had been several times attacked by the enemy. A considerable force was left behind under command of major Solewyn.

On the 28th the enemy repeated his attack on Dilangu, on which the abovementioned pangerang and other chiefs, who, in all probability, conceived themselves protected by our arrival, were taken with a sudden panic and fled in confusion, by which circumstance, the defence of a part of the village having been entrusted to them and the enemy meeting no opposition in that quarter, our troops were forced to retire, having begun, from the long continuance of the action, to feel the want of ammunition. Major Solewyn having been wounded at the commencement of the action, the command devolved on captain Van Geen, who conducted the retreat in the most brilliant manner through numerous parties of the enemy.

As soon as general Van Geen, who lay at Kalitan, heard the firing, he sent lieutenant De Latre, with the djayeng sikars out to reconnoitre and soon had the mortification to hear that the Solo force was in full retreat; on which he put his column in motion and soon after met the princes entirely deserted by their followers.

On this lieutenant De Latre, with the brave djayeng sikars, threw himself in the midst of the enemy and after having retaken 3 guns, which had been abandoned by the Solo princes and made himself master of an enemy's standard, fell in with Captain Van Geen at the head of his column retreating in the best order.

The advance-guard of the column under general Van Geen, commanded by colonel Cochius met the retreating column about the same time. Colonel C. was witness of the admirable manner, in which the retreat was conducted.

Captain Van Geen was wounded at the moment before the arrival of colonel Cochius when the command devolved upon captain La Coste.

On this occasion, on our side were wounded the brave and active major Solewyn and captain Van Geen, besides 7 European flankers, a captain of the Sumarap auxiliaries and 2 djayeng sikar. The loss sustained on the part of the Solo troops, although not yet ascertained, must have been considerable. The regent Sosro, brother to the prime minister of the emperor of Solo, besides 2 of his secretaries, were killed and another brother wounded; a considerable number of mantries and other chiefs were also killed.

In consequence of this success the rebels occupied the whole of the country eastward as far as Jaman, Pipidan and Masaran and concentrated themselves before Souracarta. The raden, Mas Papak, commands this division of the rebels and has brought over to his side the greater part of the population between the southern mountain and Sourakarta. Measures have been adopted for forming the subjects of Solo in these parts and further east, into baussans, for the purpose of stemming the tide of rebellion and 2 of his most trusty chiefs have been dispatched by Mangko Nagoro to counteract the baneful influence of the rebels as much as possible.

Peace reigns in the districts Dierjo to the eastward, and Sukowati to the northward of Soura' arta.

The accounts from the more distant regencies of the native provinces are also favorable.

Regarding the place of residence of Dipo Negoro, it is reported that he had removed from the village of Kepuran, district Kajinam, to Pulo Wati and that he had afterwards stationed himself in the village Djolotento, situated at the foot of the mountain Merapi, to the westward of Klatten and south from Boyolali.

By the latest accounts from the Kadoe the enemy had not adopted offensive measures in the Probolingo district, although it was strongly suspected that such was his intention. In Minoreh the rebels are increasing daily and the whole population is flocking to their standard. In the night between the 28th and 29th ultimo, they attacked in great numbers the fortified post Sumbun situated in the above district and only 6 miles distant from Magelan; but were quickly repulsed by well directed fire of cannon and musketry. The accounts from Magelan are also unfavorable. The rebels are making rapid progress in that district.

In Banyumas matters continue on much the same footing as communicated in our last. The rebels still maintain possession of the district Remo Jattie and are expected soon to make a forward movement. They have been tampering with the regents there and endeavouring to seduce them from the good cause, but the resident of Raya' has received assurances of their continued good faith, from which we may flatter ourselves that, on the arrival of the reinforcement from Batavia, we will be in condition to prevent matters taking a worse turn in that quarter.

By accounts just received from Rayal we learn that the abovementioned detachment consisting of 100 Europeans, under command of captain De Munck, had arrived there on the 31st

August and commenced their march to Banyumas the morning following.

A dispatch from the assistant resident of Salatiga dated 21st August, states that the rebels were marching in force against Ampel and that he was about to call out the baussan of Salatis and marching thither to oppose them. On the 30th colonel D. Bast had broken up from Boyolali for the purpose of uniting his column with that of colonel Cochius, at Kalittan."

In another column we have given a long extract from the *Batavia Courant* detailing recent events and the progress of the war in the native provinces. These accounts are of a very alarming description, and coming from an official source, the mischief is not likely to be much exaggerated. Our private accounts inform us that the newly restored sultan had left Batavia, accompanied by a deputation from the Dutch government, who are to reinstate him on the throne of Djocjokarta. The insurgent chiefs have, however, signified their disapprobation of this arrangement, and are resolved to oppose it by every means in their power. Diepo Nagoro, who is the grandson to the sultan, is most violent in his opposition, and appears determined not to enter into any terms with the Dutch. The restoration of the sultan at the present moment, has betrayed the fears and weakness of the European government; the natives view the measure as the *dernier* resort of a ruined cause, and we do not think that any change in the Dutch administration, or any concessions short of the total abandonment of the native districts, would now induce the insurgents to lay down their arms. Their cause appears to be daily improving, and the influence of the leaders having successfully sown the seed of disaffection in some of the neighbouring districts, many of the inhabitants have lately deserted the European interest and openly joined the ranks of their countrymen. The part of the country which has been recently overrun by the rebels have been entirely laid waste. Ruin and devastation mark their track in every direction, and several plantations belonging to Europeans have been burnt and destroyed.

The Adipati Adimanggolo, formerly regent of Samarang, has died a prisoner in the guard ship at Batavia. This chief, with his son Raden Salleh, were seized and imprisoned at the commencement of the war, on suspicion of having been concerned in an attempt to set fire to the town of Samarang.

Of the disturbances in Cherribon little authentic information had been received at the date of our advices. Several small parties of troops had been sent thither from Batavia, but no intelligence of their operations had transpired. *S. C. Sept.* 28. 1826.

The *Mary Ann Sophia* is in from Batavia. She left it on the 8th of October and therefore does not add much to the intelligence previously received. The apprehended insurrection in Cherribon proves to have been nothing serious, and has been quelled without bloodshed. The old sultan *Amangkabuana* was crowned at Solo on the 28th of September with as much pomp as was practicable. General De Koek acted as chief-commissioner, assisted by Messrs. Engelhart and Martinpe who accompanied the sultan from Batavia. His majesty received the congratulations of the native chiefs who were assembled on the occasion without much ceremony, the cares of royalty appearing to be burdensome to him. He is represented as being imbecile from old age and long confinement, and takes no interest or concern in the management of his own affairs. Like most of the Javanese princes we read of, he is fortunately blessed with a consort who is in every respect the very reverse of imbecility, possessing a strength of mind and judgment worthy of a princess. On her exertions, therefore, must depend the success of the sultan in establishing his authority, and it will be well for the Dutch if *she* also does not aspire to independence and break off all connection with the European government. This can only be effected by gaining the confidence of the Diepo Nagoro and the insurgent chiefs and making common cause with them in the war.

Amongst the Europeans in Java, the restoration of the Sultan is by some considered the most judicious measure and by others condemned as the worst that could have been adopted. We ourselves incline to the latter opinion, although, as yet, nothing decided can be said upon the subject.

It is reported that the count Du Bus means to establish a free press in Java, because, he says that he sees no other method of obtaining a correct account of the state of matters throughout the island; the official authorities in the different provinces invariably furnishing garbled and partial statements of whatever takes place within their jurisdiction, and the government has no other means of ascertaining the truth.

The regulation which formerly existed at Batavia regarding the payment of a certain portion of the custom duties in silver is again in force. By this unjust and foolish decree the government refuse to receive their own notes in payment of the duties, and compel every one to pay two-thirds of the different amounts which may be due, in silver guilders. It is always difficult and sometimes even impossible for the merchants to procure the sums necessary for this purpose, and the losses which they sustain by being forced to purchase guilders at a high premium are enormous. The government paper is by this means further depreciated and the discount upon treasury notes at the date of our advices was 10 to 12 per cent. The silver money which is thus arbitrarily and surreptitiously obtained is immediately sent off to pay the troops in the disturbed districts where it is disseminated, and little of it ever finds its way back to Batavia. The insurgents are therefore the gainers ultimately by these measures, and have abundance of cash amongst them, whilst the European government cannot find enough to pay their establishments. *S. C. October 26th*, 1826.

It appears that the disturbances in Cheribon originated in the positive refusal of the chiefs and their followers to receive 100 doits for a rupee. The resident, alarmed by so numerous and tumultuous an assemblage, paid them with 120 doits to the rupee, and the express which he dispatched to Batavia brought back a confirmation of what he had done and authority to continue to pay the chiefs at that rate, which we believe has satisfied them for the present. The commissioner stated in reply to the remonstrances against the alterations in the currency, made both by the governor-general and council and the merchants, that it was a decree of his majesty, which he had no power to alter, nevertheless he has since yielded; first to the remonstrances of the troops, and again to the chiefs of Cheribon, while the greater part of the community continue to be rewarded for their dutiful submission by a continuance of the decree.

A report prevailed in Batavia, that the old sultan had been murdered in his palace, but it wants confirmation. The sultan's proclamation calling on the chiefs to return to their allegiance had only produced promises from a few to obey, provided his highness could guarantee them from the effects of Depo Negoro's wrath;—thus acknowledging his influence to be more powerful than the sultan's, although backed by all the power and resources of the European government. The sultan is said to have addressed Depo Negoro in the style and with the ceremonies used towards an independent sovereign. Sufficient time had elapsed for an answer, which, if favorable, would not be kept secret.

The reinforcements of troops from Europe and the out-settlements, have encreased the European force much beyond what has ever been opposed to the insurgents, since the commencement of the insurrection, yet the encreased means of Depo Negoro are such, that they are not only compelled to act on the defensive, but have hard work to maintain their posts against the Javanese, who, it would appear, now close with them, and fight hand to hand, and have on more than one occasion, obliged them to retreat with serious loss. The insurgent troops advance to within two or three miles of Solo, and stop the communication between Samarang and Djoejo, by cutting up the roads and burning the bridges. A strong detachment is occasionally sent to open the communication, upon which the insurgents retire, but occupy their post the moment the troops have passed. The schuttery is in active duty every where, and the quiet and peaceable civilians, worn out by unusual exposure and fatigue, are affording abundant occupation to the medical practitioners, while business of every description is at a stand,—and Batavia, once the queen of the east, exhibits the appearance of a city afflicted with the plague.

The commissioner continues to pursue his system of retrenchment. The following offices have been entirely abolished: administration of finance, water-staat, forest, salt, superintendent of the post office and roads and bridges, verwisseling kantore, (or exchange office, a place where you might literally be said to whistle for silver in exchange for paper), the superintendent of stamps, (as a separate department) and the circuit judges; all master attendants, except at Batavia, Samarang, Sourabaya and Rhio; the residencies of Buitenzorg and Crawang are incorporated with Batavia; Grissi with Sourabaya, and Bagnio Wangie with Besukie. Great reductions have been made in the number and pay of the civilians at the other stations. The clergy have had their allowances reduced 400*f* a month.

Orders have been received from Europe to abolish the entrepots. The commissioner, however, thinking it might be attended with injurious consequences, had communicated with

the merchants, through the director of customs, whose very able report had induced his excellency to suspend the execution of his majesty's orders, until a reply to the reference which had been made, can be received. When the entrepot regulations were promulgated they were hailed as the commencement of a return to liberal principles although doubts were entertained by many, of their stability; these doubts are now but too likely to be speedily realized.

The Dutch company have got the monopoly of the opium farms in Java and Madura (which have not, as usual, been exposed for sale) at a lower rate, it is said, than had been offered for them by others. It seems to be the prevailing opinion in Java that they will, ere long, get a monopoly of the tin, spices and copper, and every thing else that is worth having. It is doubted whether the sacrifices thus made at the expence of the government, great as the profits which accrue to the company may be, will counterbalance their losses in those departments of trade, where they are exposed to fair and open competition, independent of the heavy expence which all their cumbersome establishments involve, while the expence of governing the country (which will infallibly be greatly augmented for the benefit of the company) may prove too onerous for the mother country to support. *S. C. November* 9. 1826.

We are sorry to learn, by the latest arrivals from Batavia, that the insurgents had resumed hostilities with fresh vigour and activity. It is stated that Diepo Negoro had made an attack on Dioejo-carta with a well-equipped body of troops and had not been effectually repulsed when the last account came away. Simultaneous attacks were made on the Dutch posts at Passar Giddie and Boro-Bido for the evident object of distracting attention and harassing the European troops by forcing them to operations in the field in support of the points on which the attacks are directed. That object attained (and we believe that it has been pursued with the most fatal effects to the health of the newly arrived levies) the insurgents withdraw and seldom hazard a more serious collision with the superior energy and discipline of the European troops.

The pangerang of Serang, who has borne a conspicuous part on the insurgent side, had come over to the Dutch and has been received with flattering distinction; but we cannot attach much weight to the mere circumstance of his defection, because we know that not many months ago the son of Diepo-Negoro acted a similar part, but took the earliest occasion of returning to his father with all his followers and a supply of arms and ammunition which he had received or taken in the Dutch lines.

We think much more importance due to the arrival of colonel Nahuys from Holland. This gallant and high-spirited officer had arrived at Anjier as the *Orynthia* was on the point of sailing. His extensive experience at the native courts, his well established character and popularity, and his liberal principles and feelings are all calculated to make his presence in Java, at this moment, of the most essential importance to the interests of his royal master.

We hear that the health of the commissioner-general is in a declining state.

S. C. August 16. 1827.

Recent accounts from Java mention the arrival at Batavia of the *Waterloo* 74, having on board 700 troops from Europe. The war however, we are happy to say, was expected soon to be at an end, as it is stated that Mr. Stavers, an English gentleman in Java, had had, by authority of the Dutch government, an interview with Diepo Negoro, who evinced a disposition, to come to terms, and in consequence, all hostilities had been suspended. The commissioner was to leave Batavia in a day or two for Salatiga, to enter into a negociation with the insurgents, whose leader had, it appears, written letters some time ago to the Dutch government expressing a wish to treat, but those letters never reached their destination, having been intercepted by a certain resident and others who benefitted by the war. The suspected resident had been placed under the surveillance of the police, and if it shall prove that he has been guilty, it is to be hoped that so much villainy may not lose its reward.

The murderer who takes a solitary life is hanged, and justly so—but after all, what is his crime if we regard it in its consequences, to that of the man who, for the sake of a little miserable lucre, does not hesitate to be the instrument of prolonging a contest which must cost many a brave man his life, and reduce many a family to destitution, to say nothing of the other evils, great and many as they are, which follow in the train of long protracted war.

S. C. Sept. 27. 1827.

Our latest accounts from Java are by no means favourable. The commissioner-general

had returned to Buitenzorg without having effected a pacification of the eastern provinces and indeed it seems very doubtful whether the insurgent chiefs ever entered into these negociations with any other view than to gain time and thereby to prevent their adversaries from making any impression before the commencement of the rainy season, so prejudicial in its effect on the European constitution. As soon, however, as the rains had set in the insurgents appear to have resumed offensive operations with their usual vigour and upon the same harassing and well-selected principle of making a number of simultaneous movements in different directions, pursuing or relinquishing an advantage just as it might appear advisable, without hazarding a conflict in circumstances favourable to European skill and discipline. The consequences have been most fatal to the Dutch troops whose hospitals could hardly contain their sick.

We learn that some feelings of dissatisfaction have been recently manifested by the Solo court which has hitherto remained in faithful alliance with the Dutch and the risk of such disaffection will every day became more imminent as the cause of the European government, either from want of troops or money, may appear sinking in the other native districts. An insurrection in Kuderie (one of the Solo provinces) had induced colonel Nahuys to proceed thither with a mixed force of 300 men and we understand that this gallant officer encountered such an overpowering body of the insurgents that he escaped with much difficulty by throwing himself into one of the small field forts, after having lost nearly all his troops. The insurgents were as usual headed by priests. *S .C. January* 31. 1828.

By the *Mercury*, Captain Brodie, from Batavia the 25th ultimo, we learn that the celebrated priest, Kai Modjo, the able coadjutor of Diepo Nagoro in the Javanese insurrection, had been taken, with five hundred of his followers, by the Dutch, who predict from the event a speedy termination of the war. The capture of Kai Modjo may indeed somewhat weaken the religious influence which Diepo Nagoro has possessed over the minds of the insurgents, but we are assured by a well informed correspondent that it is by no means certain that it will produce the wonderful results which the Dutch anticipate from it, since Diepo Nagoro, has still a respectable force at his disposal and could easily hold out during the rainy season, were his followers even fewer than they are. It is confidently asserted that Kai Modjo has been taken by an act of foul treachery on the part of the Dutch. It will afford us nothing but pleasure to learn that the story is untrue ; if however it is well founded, the nature of the means employed to get this formidable personage into their power must render the Dutch more hateful to the natives than ever, and may have none of the pacific results which a fair and honourable capture might have produced. Kai Modjo, at the time the *Mercury* left Java, was confined in the jail at Batavia and it is said was well treated, but complained bitterly of the alleged iniquitous means employed by the Dutch to get him into their power.

S. C. January 15, 1829.

We have been favoured with an extract from a private letter from Batavia, dated in April, which gives a version of the *surrender* of Diepo Negoro different from that we published, in our last. The words are as follows :

"Diepo Negoro has at last been made a prisoner by general De Koek, and will shortly be brought up here. The popular version of this affair is, that he came over to negociate, but did not surrender unconditionally, as was some weeks ago stated, but suspended the negociations during the bulan pu'assa, all which time he hoisted his flag ; that when he renewed the negociations, the general intimated to him that his terms were too extravagant, and closed them at once by informing him that he was his prisoner. This affair requires no comment, if all this be true, but as I have not had an opportunity to procure information from proper authorities, you must just take the *ondits* of the day. The news of Diepo being made a prisoner was notified to us by a salute of 101 guns on the evening of the 31st ultimo."

Accounts from other sources inform us that during the negociation, Diepo was in the habit of riding with general De Koek in his carriage—and that on the day of Diepo's being made a prisoner, he was thus engaged, when the general drove the carriage into the lines, and getting out on some pretence, the guards came round in numbers, and seized Diepo. This, no doubt was a fine piece of generalship—what more we need not say.—*S. C. May* 6. 1830.

JAVA CURRENCY & FINANCE.

The Times of the 22nd. November (1825) contains the following extract from the Dutch papers at the Hague.

"The project of law for providing for the wants of the east India possessions proposes to open a loan to the amount of 20,000,000 of florins at the utmost. For the payment of the interest and redemption of the principal, a sum of 1,400,000 florins shall be annually set apart for the colonial service, commencing from the 1st. of January, 1826. The above sum of 1,400,000 florins shall be guaranteed as far as necessary by the state, for the period of 30 years at the utmost.

"In a memorial accompanying the project of law, the causes of the existing embarrassments are stated, the extent and the nature of the guarantee of the mother country explained, and lastly, the means pointed out which the colonies possess to pay the debt without burdening the mother country

"The cause of the embarrassments are the too great mass of paper currency, the payment of the large sums for goods taken by agreement from the British government, the loss of ships laden with produce, &c., the missing of a ship from Japan with a rich cargo, the great expences incurred by the erection of military works, and of a colonial marine. We find, however, that those burdens would not have produced the present difficulties, had not serious disturbances in the Moluccas, Snmatra, Celebes, and elsewhere, broken out, which rendered expensive military armaments necessary. To these were added the failure of the crops, and contagious diseases which carried off several thousands of the natives, so that many tracts of land remained uncultivated.

"Till 1824, says the memorial, the distress was ascribed in India to temporary causes. With this idea every thing was done on a large scale, and even considerable domains, alienated in former years, had been re-purchased; but in that year a considerable fall in the price of coffee taking place, reduced at once the large stock in the hands of government to one half of its value, so that a great embarrassment ensued, which rendered it necessary to issue paper bearing 9 per cent interest, in order to support the paper currency.

"All these circumstances produced in October the conviction that it was necessary to make great retrenchments, and it was resolved to negotiate a loan in Bengal, a project which was regulated by the government at home, partly on account of the high interest (probably 3 per cent), and partly because it was feared that the produce might go to foreign merchants, to the detriment of the Netherlands.

"The rejection of this loan in Bengal naturally brought with it an obligation to give assistance from the mother country, and that for the sum be proposed, 15 millions of sicca rupees, (20 millions of florins), a sum by means of which it is hoped to re-establish the finances of India, where nine millions of paper currency are already in circulation, and specie becomes more and more scarce.

"Respecting the second point, the memorial states that the annual sum of 1,400,000 florins will suffice at the present rate of interest to pay off the 20 millions in 30 years, if not earlier. Respecting the third point, it is observed that the guarantee of the mother country is required only for the satisfaction of the Indies, but that it is to be confidently expected that the Indian treasury will be able to provide the annual sum of 1,400,000 florins for the payment of interest and capital. From 1817 to 1821, the revenues amounted to about 152 millions, and the expenditure to about 151 millions. The estimate for 1824 was 27 millions for the revenues, and 26 millions for the expenditure; but by the falling of the prices of coffee, there was a deficiency of nearly a million and a half in the first six months of 1824.

"Till 1819, the revenue exceeded the expenditure: at that time the troubles in Palembang and the *cholera morbus* had a visible effect, the establishments remained on too expensive a footing, and the expenses were too great. When the causes are removed, to which end his majesty has adopted energetic measures, the effect will cease. These measures are the determination of a *quinquennial budget* for India, from which no departure shall be made; the suspension of public works for five years; the abolition of expensive boards for civil works, &c.; simplifications of the administration; diminution of the number of persons employed in most of the offices, and withdrawing a number of payments: limitation in the appointments of officers of whom no more are to be sent from home till they are asked for from India.

"It is calculated that the board of works cost annually 800,000 or 900,000 florins; that the interest of the public currency, which is to be called in, is 400,000; so the saving of these two branches will nearly amount to the 1,400,000 required, and that the other measures will produce such a salutary effect, that it is probable the guarantee of the mother country will never be required."

The means by which his majesty of the Netherlands here proposes to relieve the finances of his Indian dominions appear to us as inadequate as the causes assigned for their present embarrassment are unsatisfactory and incorrect. These we shall examine in detail.

1st. "The too great mass of paper currency."

This has embarrassed the circulation and consequently the trade of Java and is now embarrassing the government whose revenues are, through the change of circumstances, chiefly paid in paper; but it has, until very lately, been a source of convenience if not of advantage to them, in as much as, by means of it, they have gradually extracted from their subjects on Java upwards of 11 millions of Java rupees which they could not otherwise have procured.

This currency has therefore hitherto supported the local government and enabled them to go on, and is not a cause, but its redundance is the effect of embarrassments proceeding from other causes.

2nd. "The payment of large sums for goods taken by agreement from the British government."

The British government, on giving up Java, left all the cash balances in the treasuries throughout the restored colonies, together with a large supply of military, marine and other stores amounting in all to about one million sterling, for which, by the recent commercial treaty, (*so faithfully observed by the Dutch!*) it is stipulated that England is to receive in December 1826, one hundred thousand pounds!!! So much for this cause of embarrassment.

3rd. "The loss of ships laden with produce &c."

Two or three ships laden with spices have been lost, but the total amount of such loss occurring to a trading government within the space of 100 years can hardly be termed very considerable.

4th. "The missing of a ship from Japan with a rich cargo."

None of the Japan ships exceed in value three or, at the utmost, four hundred thousands guilders.

5th. "The great expense incurred in the erection of military works and in forming a colonial marine."

Unless the construction of piers, bridges and roads be here comprehended, we know of no military works of consequence that have been going on. The colonial marine has indeed been very expensive and it might, with equal justice, have been added, very useless.

6th. His Netherland majesty here touches on more prodigal sources of expense viz: the disturbances prevailing in the Moluccas, Sumatra, Celebes and *elsewhere*, which we presume is intended to express almost every island in the archipelago occupied by a Dutch authority.

Their wars have undoubtedly been the great source of the embarrassments felt by the Java government, but these wars have been produced by causes which have not yet ceased to operate and which from experience of the principles, policy and feelings of the government *employes*, are not likely to cease. While the Dutch place themselves on every outlet of the Indian archipelago for the mere object of levying tribute and while with this view they plant along the extensive coasts of such an island as Borneo for instance, a chain of paltry posts for the purpose of commanding every creek and river which the bounty of nature has left available for the use and convenience of the inhabitants, we do not see how they can expect or deserve to be met by the natives with any other feelings than those of aversion and of resistance to their authority. There is a radical error therefore in the principles on which their govern-

ment has been acting since their restoration which must be altogether changed and abandoned before these sources of embarassment can be obviated and removed.

7th. "Failure of crops and contagious diseases."

These scourges have been less felt in Java than in any part of the eastern world.

8th. "The purchase of alienated domains." The estate of Sookoo Bumi is the only domain we are aware of having been re-purchased by the Dutch government. For it they agreed to give 800,000 rupees and one-half remains still unpaid.

9th. "The distress was to be ascribed to temporary causes up to the year 1824." This we apprehend could not be the case, for in 1821 the Batavian government began to negotiate loans in Bengal. His majesty states that he disapproved of such loans as tending to throw profit into the hands of foreigners, but, we believe, we may state with confidence, that long before his majesty's pleasure could be signified, the project for a loan in Bengal had failed from want of confidence in the security tendered.

The revenue of Java in 1824 has been estimated at 22 millions of rupees, but by the appropriation made by the government at home of so large a portion of their coffee to the new royal Dutch company, the island is for the present deprived of four millions of that estimated income; while the effects on its general commerce for the loss of a material part of its available returns and other measures now in force must necessarily cause a falling off in the customs of probably not less than two millions more. The expenditure, on the other hand, independent of the war contingencies, exceeds 25 millions.

If therefore 20 millions of guilders were considered by his Majesty not more than sufficient to re-establish the finances of Netherlands India, previous to the occurrence of the recent disturbances *in Java*, we can hardly think *three* times that amount more than necessary to cover the deficit of revenue and the extraordinary expenditure occasioned by the existing insurrection even if speedily brought to a close. The expenses of the war and the deficit of revenue, particularly in the land rent and opium farms, has been estimated at 10 millions at the end of 1826.

Assuming the annual revenue at 18 millions of guilders, which is higher than our preceding remarks justify, and taking the ordinary expenditure at 25 millions, which, we believe, to be under the average of the last five years exclusive of war contingencies, the state of the finances at the end of the next 5 years will be as follows:

Ordinary expenditure at 25 millions annually	125,000,000
Revenue at 18 millions annually	90,000,000
Deficit	35,000,000
Amount of paper currency in circulation including treasury notes,	13,000,000
Deficit of revenue and extraordinary expences of the war	10,000,000
Total Debt	58,000,000

In this estimate we claim no allowance for an additional supply of troops from Holland, for the purpose of restoring order and tranquillity.

As no one expects that any political quackery whatever can raise the revenue within the period we have stated beyond its present amount, the policy of government can only operate effectually for the relief of the colony in reducing the ordinary expenditure and by encouraging agriculture and commerce, to establish the means from which in time an increase of revenue can be received. By withdrawing their distant and expensive out-stations and by the reduction of the colonial marine, a good deal may be done immediately towards the first of these objects; but the other is of more difficult attainment. To create confidence and capital in a country from which both have been very nearly banished is not to be effected but through time and more scrupulous purity of proceeding than can be looked for in the present case.

The new Dutch company may, during even the probable period of their solvency, do much good if they direct their funds to the support of the agricultural interests of the colony. We fear, however, that their means may be frittered away in less beneficial objects, in jobs and accommodations to a needy government—the public interest being in such circumstances the subject matter of traffic, sacrificed by the necessities of the one party to the cupidity of the other.

With the wisest and most peaceable administration it will take at least five years to place

Java in the same situation as it was before the present revolution bro'e out and perhaps more than 10 years to make it what was in 1818. A fixed annual grant of five to ten millions of guilders during that period may, perhaps on the whole, be the easiest and most effectual plan by which his Netherland's majesty can provide for these colonies; after, however, having first liquidated the amount of the paper currency and all existing claims.

[*Singapore Chronicle, 11th May* 1826.

Having gone so deeply into other points of Java politics in our last number, we were prevented by want of room from reverting, according to our promise, to the subject of the Java paper currency and the measures now in progress for its liquidation.

Our intelligent Batavia correspondent whose interesting letter appeared in our paper of the 27th ultimo considers that the Dutch government ought in *justice* to redeem their silver guilders and small paper money at the rate at which they had been issued, viz. ten spanish dollars for 22 rupees of either description.

To enable our readers to form a judgement on the subject it may be necessary to trace it to an earlier date.

It may be almost unnecessary to state that previous to the conquest of Java by our arms, the paper currency in circulation represented the rix dollar of 48 stivers and that no issue under the denomination of *east India guilders* was known before the arrival of the Dutch commissioners general in 1826.

The english administration of Java issued a proclamation on the 1st November 1818 declaring the *silver Java rupee to be the standard silver coin of the island,* and on the 7th of February 1814 it was also notified by procla nation by the same authority that all treasury notes of government should, in future, be made out in Java rupees instead of spanish dollars which regulations remained unaltered during the continuance of our government.

It is therefore evident that as the commissioners-general of his Netherland majesty, in issuing their paper currency at the restoration of the colony in 1816, did not qualify its value by proclamation, the term *east India guilder* which was arbitrarily assumed for the new paper rupees and which had no distinct reference to any coin then in existence, must be understood to mean the Java or Batavia rupee which was then the established legal standard rupee of the island. The acts of the restored government could admit of no other interpretation, as the new paper currency, to the extent of five millions of India guilders, was thrown into circulation in common with the Java rupee and was received at the same estimated value with refetence to the spanish dollar, namely, 22 rupees for ten spanish dollars.

Of the original nominal value of the paper there can therefore be no doubt.

Along with the paper currency the commissioners-general however, brought out from Holland about one million of Dutch silver guilders which were gradually introduced into the circulation at the same nominal value with the Java rupee to which coin they are actually much inferior. The measure did not escape the quick-sighted observation of commercial men who easily perceived that while they could purchase guilders in Europe at their common price of about 250 for one hundred spanish dollars, there was an evident and conspicuous advantage in bringing them to Java where they could exchange 220 guilders for 100 of the other coin or an equivalent. Our American friends in particular profited largely, as might be expected, by the opportunity.

The quantity first issued by the Dutch government formed so small a portion of the general circulation that no effect was felt from it, and spanish dollars for two or three years remained at their established value of ten spanish dollars for 22 rupees, but as the quantity of Dutch guilders increased in the circulation, the Java rupee gradually but totally disappeared and spanish dollars adjusting themselves to the standard of the Dutch guilder (which now occupied the place of the Java rupee) naturally rose to an agio of 14 to 16 per cent.

The effect produced in the paper currency by these circumstances can be easily perceived. The paper note for an Indian guilder instead of being of the same value with the Java rupee became the representative of the Dutch guilder and consequently, to the extent to which the latter is of inferior value to the former, the public have been defrauded.

According to the excellent table published by the Bengal government for the guidance of the eastern treasuries the intrinsic value of 100 spanish dollars is in each case a small fraction more than 252-27 Dutch guilders or 231-139 Batavia rupees.

If we apply these rates to the issue of paper and silver made by the Dutch commissioners

general in 1816 and which we shall take in round numbers at 6,000.000. the intrinsic value of that number of Batavia rupees will be found to be spanish dollars 2,593,024; while the value of the same number of Dutch guilders is only spanish dollars 2,378.404 and consequently that, by the substitution of the one denomination of coin for the other, the public have been defrauded of nearly 215.000 dollars.

In fact, this estimate is considerably under the truth, as the paper currency ought rather to be estimated at 220 rupees for 100 spanish dollars instead of 231-39 which we have assumed.

But while we go so far with our Batavian correspondent, we cannot admit that the recent measures of his excellency the commissioner-general have had any share in producing such injurious consequences.

The change which we have endeavored to trace in the paper currency is of many years standing, and to be charged, with many other very questionable acts, to the government of the baron Vander Capellen. Had the present authorities in Java determined on redeeming the small paper currency at the rate at which it had originally been issued, as suggested by our correspondent, the sacrifice to public principle might have gained and merited admiration, but the measure we think uncalled for, because we conceive it could never be shaped, so as to carry reparation to those who had been originally injured; and was much more likely to benefit those who had no just claims for redress.

Less, much less, will satisfy our expectation.

Singapore Chronicle, May 26. 1826.

It appears that the commissioner-general has granted what he calls a free press to Java which commenced from the 1st of April, from which date the *Courant* has been published three times a week. In none, however, of the numbers which have yet appeared is there, we understand, the slightest appearance of that freedom of discussion which would inevitably and instantaneously follow the grant of such a privilege by the supreme authority of British India. We are assured, however, that this silence does not proceed from any want either of talent or inclination on the part of the Dutch colonists to reprobate the measures of their colonial administration, which have of late thrown so much odium on their national character and credit; it is therefore no unfair conclusion to believe that this press is, what our correspondents describe it to be, a press for which every one is *free* to write what he pleases, the editor *free* to reject what he pleases, and the government *free* to punish whom and how it pleases—that the profession of the commissioner in short, is hollow—*vox et præterea nihil.*

We have been kindly favored, as intimated in our last, with translations from the *Courant*, which will be found in a subsequent column. It appears that the editor attributes to us a desire to seize every opportunity to "pick a hole in their jackets;" and is at a loss to discover to what to attribute our ill-will,—whether to the "spleen" to which, it seems, our countrymen are so subject, or to the "ravings of a disappointed lover who sees the object of his desires in the possession of another." Reasons could not have been as "thick as black-berries" with our contemporary when he pitched on these, particularly the latter; but no matter; considering us as he does in the light of a patient, we are thankful to him for the compassion with which he views our disorder and laments our sufferings and shall therefore forbear in mere gratitude to criticise his style and language, to which perhaps a translation may have done less than justice.

The editor of the *Courant* will insist upon it that we are "angry;" but no charge was ever more groundless. Indignant we may be and are—as who indeed is not—at the treatment our countrymen and others have suffered, who, confiding in the professions of liberality held out to them by the original commissioner of the king of Holland, put themselves in the power of such a government, and this feeling is not much soothed by the reflection that the treatment complained of comes from those who owe to us the possession of those very colonies from which they are now so anxious to exclude our commerce and expel our subjects. Still, however, we harbour no ill-will; our only wish has been to see Java wisely and benignly governed. We have felt interested, it is true, in the struggle into which we believed the Javanese to have been unmercifully goaded, but still without a wish that the European government should be expelled; we have only hoped that their reverses and losses might teach them a lesson of justice and moderation; a lesson much required; for, in common we believe, with the whole civilized world, we have considered the Dutch from the earliest period of their history as the most short-sighted and grasping rulers that ever possessed colonies. The universal dissatisfaction of

the natives of all their old possessions on the restoration of their authority and the insurrections which have since taken place in every country subject to their sway, do indeed testify, as the *Courant* justly remarks, how much their flag has been "honoured, respected and obeyed for the last two hundred years."

The editor does us only justice in giving us credit for a sincere desire for "equity and truth," and actuated by that spirit we shall ever be ready to correct any errors into which we may have been inadvertently led, and grateful to those who shall enable us to do so. It is therefore a source of satisfaction to reflect that our contemporary does not slumber at his post but has evinced a commendable anxiety to correct our errors, though, on the present occasion, it must be confessed, that his remarks, however excellent in other respects, rather corroborate than disprove all that we have advanced on the faith of private communications. We rejoice also at the notice bestowed on us for another reason, because it shews that our strictures upon measures which appeared to us discreditable have at length been felt and that his excellency has not been totally insensible to the remarks which truth and justice and sympathy in the fate of our unfortunate countrymen have sometimes rendered it necessary to inflict. We hail any symptom of feeling and although, as the *Courant* justly observes, "it is difficult for the ethiopian to change his skin or the leopard his spots," we do not absolutely despair of seeing the Dutch government deviate, one of these days, into a system more calculated to secure the affection and respect of its subjects than any it has hitherto pursued.

Hitherto, to their honour be it said, not a Dutchman has been found to defend the measures of his excellency; but a gentleman now comes forward a willing advocate in the cause and in reply to our remarks on the proclamation calling in the promissory notes, tells us that they are insipid, weak, vulgar, insolent, ignorant, untrue. Let us see how far they have deserved these heavy imputations. In the first place, we learn that we were wrong in giving credit to the pledge which every note bore upon the face of it under an express decree of the commissioner, namely, that it would be paid at the general treasury on or before the 31st of December 1826—we were wrong, we are told, in this—because by some subsequent resolution (which not having received the *Courant* we could not have seen) his excellency had thought fit to change his mind and to fix the time of payment from the 21st December 1826 to 31st Jan. 1827. The editor of the *Courant* is himself wrong in his dates as will hereafter appear, but granting that we are mistaken, the error is trivial and deducts nothing from the evidence which proves that the colonial government of Java have behaved to the holders of their paper with the cruelest ill faith.

With regard to the resolution commencing with the words "wishing to fulfil the promise given to the public &c." we agree with the editor that the will to act up to our engagements may exist without the power of performance; but then, so far as the power does go, if we would gain credit for sincerity, our acts must tally with our professions. Do the "sayings, and the doings" of Dutch government thus harmonize?—we think not, and in support of our opinion shall briefly state a few of the many facts which have come to our knowledge, and we call upon the merchants of Java, the only independent holders of treasury notes, to contradict us if we are wrong.

The commissioner shortly after his arrival in Java declared that there should be no paper of any description in circulation after the 31st December 1826, and in pursuance of this declaration the notes that were afterwards issued were made payable on or before that date. The proclamation of the 21st December, published in the *Courant* of the 27th gives notice that the notes will be cashed at the general treasury from 1st to 31st January, and not from the 21st December as stated by the editor. The editor of the *Courant* cannot but he aware that the director-general of finance (by order of the supreme authority no doubt) sent for several of the principal holders of the notes and stated to them that as government had not the means of discharging the whole, he was desired as a particular favour, to request them not to send in those they held, and that if they would consent to hold them until July they should all be discharged with silver, and, it has been said, with interest. Thus they succeeded in disposing of one million; yet notwithstanding the assertion of the *Courant* that all notes presented were paid, many fruitless applications were made at the general treasury for payment and many days of January had elapsed before the treasurer had received any orders respecting them.

About the 10th of January, we believe, they began redeeming these obligations—but how? Did they pay the notes with silver, of which the editor insists upon it they had sufficient in the treasury, and with which, in ordinary good faith, they were bound to redeem them? No—but

instead of this the holders were offered 1-5th in copper, 2-5ths in silver and 2-5ths bonds only receivable in payment of produce purchased at the government sales, and told they would be paid in no other way. Here a sacrifice was certainly required—but did the government make it, or the unfortunate holders of their obligations? We leave the editor to answer this question, since he has deprived the government of the only apology we could find for such a violation of good faith, namely, their want of the means. *We* believed them poor—*he* has made them dishonest.

With regard to what the *Courant* says about the "benevolent feelings" which induced the commissioner to allow the notes to remain in circulation at the solicitation of the merchants nothing can be more disingenuous, for the editor of the *Courant* well knows that the merchants did not object to the discharging of the notes—he well knows that they only objected to the *manner* in which they were discharged; they objected to the overwhelming quantity of copper issued from the treasury and forced upon the community in part of the notes and in payment of all ordinances and other demands upon it, whilst on the 18th February, in mockery of justice, they made a law declaring that no payment in copper would be received into the treasury from those indebted to it, of a larger amount than 10 guilders, and this law was strictly enforced against all on whom the government had claims. The editor cannot but know that executions were obtained against several Chinese who were threatened with a jail, if not actually carried to it, who had in their possession more copper money than would have paid the amount of their debt, and who vainly pleaded that, in consequence of the government paying in copper and refusing to receive payment in the same metal, no other money was procurable. Measures of more glaring injustice than these cannot be conceived.

It is impossible to say where the evil would have stopped had not the fiscal or public prosecutor applied to government to know whether the doits in the possession of their unfortunate debtors should be considered as money or as merchandize, and suspended proceedings until the decision of government should be obtained. We have not yet learned what decision the commissioner came to or whether his "*benevolent feelings*" admitted of enforcing a law against others to which he himself paid no regard and of inflicting punishment for defaults which his own measures had rendered unavoidable. Perhaps the only dilemma in which his excellency's conscience would be placed, would be that if he decided that the doits were money he must order them to be received; if merchandize, they must be sold, and their intrinsic value as metal being only about one third of their established current value as money, the whole mass of some millions which must in all be issued would thus be depreciated.

As soon as we can obtain correct translations of the correspondence between the commissioner and the merchants, we shall publish them together with some further particulars of the financial manœuvres of the government that our readers may judge of its good faith and integrity towards the Java public. For the present, we must content ourselves with replying thus far to the editor of the *Courant*, assuring him that our narrow limits alone prevent our bringing forward many other facts which have been communicated to us, and which we shall probably take a future opportunity of laying before the public.

We feel satisfied that the Dutch, who are, with reason, proud of the ancient good faith of Holland, will not thank the editor of the *Courant* for his attempt to defend such measures. Before we read our cotemporary's remarks with attention we gave him credit for being a more able advocate than he has proved himself to be—we now fear that, if he does not become a little more judicious, his excellency the commissioner will have too much cause to say,

Non tali auxilio—nec defensoribus istis.

Extract of a letter from Batavia. "Your Chronicle is getting saucy. Our commissioner says he cares not what you say about *him*, as there must always be two parties in such cases, but that as you have laid yourselves open to an attack by stating that the British are driven away from Java, that part of the Chronicle shall be answered.

"The rebels are now more troublesome than they have been for some time. They are up in every direction in the native provinces and harassing the Dutch troops by very frequent contests. They are generally soon beaten, but they are improving in courage and discipline and I believe increasing in numbers. A line of battle ship has passed *Anjier* with 767 soldiers for *Samarang*. Two more are hourly expected and freighted vessels are daily looked for. It is said we shall receive this season, in all, about 4,500 men. The sickness which now prevails carries off numbers and lays up more, and I am afraid that the war will not be brought to an end this year." *Singapore Chronicle, June 27, 1827.*

Decree of His Excellency the Commissioner General, Batavia 3rd. November 1827.

IN THE NAME OF THE KING.

The commissioner-general of Netherlands India,

1. Attending to his majesty's instructions transmitted to him in a letter from the minister of marine and colonies dated 30th January, for the establishment of a bank for currency for loans;

2. Considering the necessity of withdrawing all and every species of government paper in order to facilitate the circulation of the intended bank paper;

3. Attending also to the authority given by his majesty and transmitted by the minister of marine and colonies under date 1st June last, to sell tracts of land, especially in the residencies on the sea-coast, and adjoining the large towns;

4. Considering, finally, the representation made to me by the general board of finances dated the 6th October and the opinion of the government in council thereon as expressed in their letter of the 18th October;

HATH DEEMED IT FIT AND PROPER,

1st. To create bonds on the India treasury to the amount of one million guilders, bearing interest at 6 per cent. per annum to commence on the 1st January 1828 under guarantee of an annual discharge by way of lottery of two hundred and fifty thousand guilders, the first to be drawn in December 1828 and so on further, the said bonds to be disposed of in such manner as may be deemed most beneficial for the interest of government.

2nd. The bonds will be made receivable at the treasury in payment of the amount purchase of such lands and grounds, as in conformity with the king's orders, will be put up for sale by public auction.

3rd That all the treasury notes still in circulation be made exchangeable at the treasury from the 1st until the ultimo December next, making known hereby, to the holders of the same, that after that period, no promissory notes shall thereafter be accepted by any of the government cashiers.

4th. To resolve that, in withdrawing the promissory notes, they shall be exchangeable for the aforesaid bonds of 6 per ct. interest mentioned in first and second articles, but nevertheless the holders of the said promissory notes shall be at liberty to demand in exchange gold and silver which will be paid to them with the exception of ten guilders in copper each notes according to law.

That this decree be sent to the government in council, in order to be published and put in execution.

(Signed) Le Viscount du Bus de Gisignies.

Salatiga, 3rd Nov. 1827.

To the Editor of the Singapore Chronicle,

SIR,

I send you a translation of a decree of the commissioner-general which, after all that has been written in our *Courant* in reply to your strictures on the financial arrangement of our government, will not a little surprise your readers, as they will no doubt be at a loss to understand how upwards of a million and a half of promissory notes, with the interest scratched out, have still continued in circulation, after having been so repeatedly called in. I must first explain to you that government has continued to reissue them from the general treasury and by this miserable expedient they have been able to meet all demands and reserve all the silver that has since come into the treasury for customs, &c. &c. which now in consequence considerably exceeds a million. By the present decree, however, they are now finally called in and as it is very improbable that any of the holders will *voluntarily* receive the new bonds in exchange, if they really can get specie, even although seasoned with 10th in depreciated copper, which it seems, by the convenient law of this government, *they* must receive, the treasury will be well cleared before the whole are redeemed.

If the bank is only to be established when the government receives a million in specie for their 6 per cent bonds, to form the capital that is to represent the notes which the bank is to issue, we may wait long enough for it. It is believed, however, that the bank will be established whether there is any real capital or not, merely as a manufactory of paper money to supply

the necessities of government, which by this expedient will get rid of the inconvenience of the king's decree prohibiting the circulation of government paper in these colonies.

The principal civil and military officers of this government have been invited to subscribe for shares, but as the merchants, when last consulted, were ridiculous enough notwithstanding the present circumstances of the colony, to insist on the bank's being based on sound and solid principles and on having deposits in specie equal to the issue of notes so as to make them a real and convertible representative and secure their credit, they have not now been honored with a notice of the intentions of government. The government is to subscribe for shares to the amount of one million of guilders, and the factory for half a million, and it is expected that the government servants will (or must) take about one million, thus they will have a nominal capital, independent of the merchants and other private individuals, of 2½ millions on which the bank will no doubt issue notes to that extent.

The attempt now made to raise a loan of a million is a distinct acknowledgement that unless the loan succeeds the government have not the means of paying for their shares. The factory may thank the government for being in a similar predicament and the government servants generally have great difficulty in supporting their families from their scanty allowances.

You will be able to judge whether the government is likely to receive silver or even treasury notes for their 6 per ct. bonds on reading the 1st and second articles of the decree. They (the notes) are by the first to be drawn by a lottery, 25,000 guilders each year, and then to be disposed of as most beneficial to the interests of government!!! and secondly they are to be received in payment of government land. After the specimens we have already had of the good faith of this government in discharging its obligations, can any one for a moment doubt that if these bonds are paid at all, it will suit the interest and principles of government best to discharge the interest and principal of the bonds in copper?

If there is any person here foolish enough to take the bonds, he may also be foolish enough to buy lands under an arbitrary and despotic government that has the power of increasing the taxes *ad libitum*.

The community has within the last few days, been in some degree alarmed by the refusal of the public officers to receive the coupons (notes for the half year's interest of the achterstands, or bonds of the old deb) except as copper. The absence of silver caused by the great redundancy of copper has kept many of these notes in circulation for the last 2 or 3 years, in place of being sent to the treasury. The total amount, however, cannot exceed from 2 to 4 hundred thousand guilders, and it is disgraceful in the government to have thrown this paper into discredit at such a time of general distrust, and disrespectful to his Netherlands majesty who has not only confirmed the debt, and guaranteed the faithful discharge of it, but has actually ordered a certain sum to be annually set apart for that purpose.

But it would be endless to descant on the bad faith of this government and therefore, Mr. editor, without trespassing further on your space, it is time to subscribe myself,

Your faithful Servant.

VAN TRUMP.

Batavia, November 1827.

THE DUTCH TREATY.

By recent accounts from Java and England we are sorry to observe that there is very little prospect of the speedy abrogation of those oppressive restraints upon the commerce of Great Britain with the Netherland possessions which have chiefly grown out of the decree of the 3rd February, 1824. In Java no favorable change whatever has been effected in consequence of the new treaty, and it appears to be the opinion in England that the Dutch authorities have still the power of imposing what duties they please, even to the extent of prohibitory ones. In reference to the similar arrangement made for the trade of the two nations in Europe an English ministerial journal is compelled to make the following extraordinary admission: "We do not mean to disguise from our readers the fact that a general law or tariff may be so constructed as completely to annul the benefit held out to this country by the complaisant language of the agreement." If this be really true, the commercial arrangements of the late conventions are no better than so much waste paper. They are indeed worse, for they tend to encourage delusive expectations and to distract and perplex all commercial circulation.

Whatever be the wording of the late treaty there can be no question, but its practical operation is very different at the respective ports of the two nations in India. The import duties chargeable in Calcutta, for example, instead of being raised on Dutch bottoms will almost invariably be reduced. On Netherland woollens and cottons the extension of the market for which appears to be so much an object at heart with the Dutch government, the duties will only be 6 per ct. Even in the case of hollands the most important article of Dutch trade to India, in whatever direction imported and although an exciseable commodity, the whole duties will only be 20 per ct. At Batavia, on the other hand, the duties on the staple articles of British cottons and woollens have been raised and virtually since the conclusion of the treaty, from 12 to 25 per ct. in one case and from 12 to 35 in another. At the same time the duties on the staple article of exportation, coffee, have been greatly enhanced. The effect of these impolitic restraints is exhibited in the manner the most palpable and most likely to bring final conviction—the defalcation of the public revenue which has been their result. In 1817 the first complete year of re-occupation, the custom-house duties of the port of Batavia were 432,109 guilders. In 1818 they had risen to 966,556—in 1819 to 1,365,231—in 1820 to 1,672,265—in 1821 to 1,920,284—in 1822 to 2,100,164, and in 1823 to 2,622,441. The new tariff and enhanced duties having been adopted towards the beginning of 1824, the receipts of the customhouse for that year exhibit not an increase but a defalcation of 222,498 guilders. Had they increased in the medium proportion of former years and there was nothing but the excessive duties to prevent it, the revenue of 1824 instead of being only 2,399,943 ought to have been no less than 2,987,396—so that the loss sustained by the Dutch government by the NEW SYSTEM of commercial policy is, in reality, considerably more than half a million of guilders a year at the port of Batavia alone. It may perhaps be imagined that the defalcation of revenue now referred to may have originated in the depreciation of colonial produce which is ascertained to have taken place in 1824, but it is evident that such depreciation could not materially have affected the receipts, as the impost levied on the commodities in question is not an AD VALOREM duty, but a duty levied on the quantity; as we find the export of coffee during the season 1824 not less than 237,869 or only between twenty and thirty thousand piculs less than that of the previous year while the duty levied was higher by 25 per cent. The difference of the rates of duties charged on colonial produce at the Dutch and British ports is very striking. At Calcutta the duty on cotton, on indigo, on lac-dye, will not exceed at the utmost 10 per ct. on Dutch bottoms. At Batavia the present duties on coffee are at least twice this amount on British vessels. We conceive also that the manner in which the provisions of the treaty have been executed are more congenial to its true spirit

under the British than under the Netherland government. Thus an order has been sent out from England to reduce the foreign duties so that they shall not exceed double the British import. In Java on the other hand the duty has been raised on Dutch vessels so that it may not be reduced on British.

The avowed spirit and object of the treaty is reciprocity of duties and charges and the freedom of trade; but it must be confessed that there are so many qualifications, reservations, and loop-holes, to escape by, that the treaty, except supported by the best dispositions on both sides, may be wholly evaded or rendered utterly nugatory. The first article, for example, stipulates that the contracting parties are to admit the subjects of each other to trade upon the footing of the most favoured nation. If this were strictly enforced the manufactures and commodities of Great Britain ought to be admitted into the ports of Java upon the same terms and conditions as those of China, Japan, or Siam, otherwise the high contracting parties will be compelled to admit that neither the Chinese, the Japanese, or the Siamese are nations and be reduced to the necessity of finding some new term by which to designate these great groups of human beings.

In the treaty indeed there is a very comprehensive and sweeping clause as follows: "Their respective subjects conforming themselves to the local regulations of each settlement." This may mean any thing or nothing in particular. It may mean that the subjects in question shall behave generally in a peaceable and orderly manner wherever they sojourn, or it may mean that they are to pay whatever duties, charges, or impositions they may be commanded to pay at any particular port which they shall frequent without asking any questions!

The second article of the treaty stipulates that the foreigner shall pay no more than double the duty imposed upon the native merchant. This may be evaded in a great variety of ways; such as by creating government monopolies and government prohibitions and by taxing exorbitantly the staple commodities of the foreign merchant, such commodities being at the same time such as the native merchant seldom deals in at all. This has been in fact done in the case of British cottons and woollens and it seems to us clear that the same principle which admits of raising the duty to 25 or 35 per cent would equally authorize raising it to 250 or 350 per cent or any other amount which would annihilate the trade altogether. It was clearly the object of the negociators, however, not to raise the duty beyond 12 per cent as may be gathered from the context of the last clause of the article in question which stipulates that where no duty is charged to the native merchant that charged to the stranger shall not exceed 6 per cent. This was clearly founded on the tariff which the negociators supposed to be in existence in Java at the time and was intended for the protection of the Dutch merchant in the ports of British India where it was known that certain of our manufactures were admitted duty free. The Dutch merchant at the time paid in Java 6 per cent when the British merchant paid 12. Where the native merchant therefore paid no duty it was considered reasonable that the foreign merchant should be assessed no higher than the lowest ascertained duty at the time or 6 per cent,

The third article of the convention engages, "that no treaty hereafter made by either, with any native power in the eastern seas, shall contain any article tending, either expressly, or by the imposition of UNEQUAL duties, to exclude the trade of the other party from the ports of such native power: and that if, in any treaty now existing on either part, any article to that effect has been admitted, such article shall be abrogated upon the conclusion of the present treaty." This condition cannot indeed be so cleverly or plausibly evaded as the other two, but still its difficulties may be dexterously got over also. For example, at all the ports of Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes where Dutch controul is operative, the same imposts are levied on the staple manufactures of Great Britain as at Batavia. According to the spirit and letter of the treaty the duties at all these places ought in our opinion to be reduced to the same level as under the native governments when trade was flourishing; and that they should not be UNEQUAL as contemplated in the treaty they should be made exactly the same to Dutch and English. This article can refer only to such places as Palembang, Sambas, Pontianak, &c. where Dutch military posts are established, and for this good reason that where Dutch treaties with the native states are not backed by this species of ratification, they are to all intents and purposes a dead letter and of no more efficacy than if they had never been framed, a matter which is corroborated by the best of all proofs that in every one situation where Dutch influence in not paramount, British manufactures and commodities are introduced with all the freedom that could be desired while the market for them continues every year to be extended.

The manner in which the treaty may be evaded where Dutch treaties are operative will be as follows. The places in question will be declared to be Dutch settlements albeit a treaty exists with an acknowledged sovereign—albeit this sovereign be present in person and administers native law through his own officers, and albeit neither the Dutch civil nor military establishments be of sufficicient strength and efficiency to preserve the country from insurrection for six months together or to secure respect beyond the range of their cannon. We shall give one example of the effects of this system which it is impossible to contemplate without pain and regret. In the year 1812, Pontianak then an independent port consumed British and Indian goods imported in British shipping to the value of 311,275 dollars, upon which the duties were little more than sp. dols 9,000. This was exclusive of the trade with Java and other islands and the trade with China. As soon as the place received a Dutch garrison many of the articles in question were prohibited altogether—on some, the duty was raised to 12 per cent and on others to 35, by which means the trade of course became extinct, so that for the last two years Pontianak has only been visited by two vessels under the British flag and one of them met with such a reception that the experiment is not very likely to be repeated.

In making these observations we are far from objecting to the extension of Dutch authority within the archipelago. On the contrary we deem all extension of European influence to be a benefit, and when legitimately exercised, equivalent to the extension of security and protection and the augmentation of commerce, prosperity, and comfort. On the other hand, when exercised on narrow and erroneous views of national advantage, however laudable the motive or patriotic the intention, we are clear in thinking that nothing can be expected to result but disappointment to one party and injury to every other.

No European settlement or colony can ever be expected to flourish within this archipelago without a large share of commercial freedom and commercial equality. We may be quite sure that there are no other sources of real prosperity and that all the advantages of favorable situation—safe harbours—rich mines, and valuable products can come to no good, except when fostered by their protection. By the last accounts from Batavia there was not one British or American ship in the roads, a circumstance which had not been known for eight years before, and it is impossible not to connect this calamity with the system of prohibitions and restraints which has been recently established. There is another hint which we will venture to throw out at the risk of being considered national, and it is this, that no commercial settlement in the Indies can be expected, in the existing circumstances of the world, to flourish, that shall be denied the free access of British capital and enterprize. India is full of proofs of this truth. British capital and enterprize raised Calcutta in the short space of half a century to be the wealthiest and finest city the east ever saw. They raised Madras amidst the sands of the Carnatic in the same period to the second rank. They converted the barren island of Bombay into the second commercial city in Asia. They have rendered Canton superior in wealth and population to the imperial city. In six years they collected 12,000 industrious inhabitants in the hitherto desert and barren island of Singapore, who instead of committing depredation upon trade like its quondam inhabitants, export and import jointly to the value of more than fourteen millions of dollars annually. The same British capital and enterprize, let it be added, regenerated Batavia itself—are still its main supports, and converted five millions of Javanese, strangers for two centuries to the productions of European industry, into extensive consumers of British manufactures. It is clear to us that the agents which are capable of producing such effects, may be safely recommended to the respect and consideration of every prudent and enlightened government.

Singapore Chronicle, May 12. 1825.

DUTCH DECREE RESPECTING LANDS.

The Dutch decree which we have inserted in another column goes to correct one of the most objectionable measures of the government of baron Vander Capellen—an act of unqualified tyranny and injustice of which the history and circumstances are not sufficiently known out of Java.

With the view of affording this information we may observe that in 1820 many individuals of capital and enterprize became engaged in agricultural pursuits more particularly in the cultivation of coffee in the central provinces of Java. They rented land from native princes on a lease in general of twelve years, which document was duly registered at the office of the resident of the district and countersigned by him. In this mode of proceeding nothing could appear less doubtful than the sanction of the government, and the parties who engaged in these speculations being mostly foreigners (a large proportion Englishmen) they were induced to rely with perfect confidence and security on the titles by which their plantations had been conveyed to them.

In 1823 however, that is, when some of these plantations might be expected to come into bearing, and not sooner, the authorities at Batavia discovered that the admission of Europeans into the native districts for such objects was injurious and illegal; their plantations were confiscated and severe penalties denounced against their persons if they did not remove from their plantations within a very short space of time.

Commissioners were afterwards appointed to examine into the claims of the planters and on the principle of refunding to them the amount of their actual disbursements but *no more*, and this is what the baron in his speech, at closing his government, terms "*a reasonable indemnification to all who could claim it.*"—A harsher feature if possible in the case arises from the circumstance of the indemnification, inadequate as it was, not being paid, but merely a bond granted for the amount by the commissioner, the same to be liquidated *from the produce of the plantation as it should become available.*

It is to the credit of the king of Holland that he has not confirmed the act of his delegate and the present decree is, as we have already stated intended, to make reparation as far as it can be done to the unfortunate parties who after years of anxiety and toil were by an arbitrary act of power, deprived of every hope of benefit or advantage from the fruits of their industry and care. For some of them, we grieve to say, the boon has been too late.

Had these planters been left in the undisturbed enjoyment of their plantations we do not hesitate to say that the present insurrection in Java would not have taken place. They would have formed the safest pillars on which the European influence and supremacy could rest in the native provinces; they would, to a certain degree, have interposed to check the feudal controul exercised by the native chiefs over their vassals, but above all, and to this perhaps they owed their *obnoxious* character, they would have been a check also on the corrupt practices of the European authorities in the districts.

DECREE OF THE 17TH. MAY 1827.

Art. 1st. The decrees of the Indian government of the 6th May 1 23 (Staats Blaad No. 17)and 20 h May following (Staats Blaad No. 20) are withdrawn and cancelled; the residence on Java, and possession of landed property (in the expectation that on these subjects more decisive resolutions will be made) shall, for the present, be brought back to the same footing, as was resolved by the decree of the commissioner general of 18th August 1818 (Staats Blaad No. 60.)

Art. 2nd. The contracts for rents of lands in the native provinces, between the princes and chiefs on the one side, and European planters on the other side which were in force on the 6th May 1823; and which were known and registered by the residents of these courts, are

understood, from this moment, with the consent of the parties interested, to be in force, they giving up all claims for any promised allowances, or returning any indemnification for damages, which may have been given or granted by government. The farmers and proprietors are requested to agree among themselves, and apply to the commissioner general for such an extension of time in their cases, as their interests may appear to require, and particularly for a moderate indemnification to the farmer for a loss of time and profit to which they have been subjected, it being the wish of the commissioner general, if the parties should agree among themselves on the subject of extention of time for the leases, to insure them all the extension which the case may require.

Art. 3rd. None.

Art. 4th. The free disposition of their lands, and particularly the renting them to European planters, remain also insured to the Javanese princes and chiefs, only with the engagement on their parts, that the contracts of rent shall be registered with the residents of their courts, and subject to the approval of the commissioner general.

Art. 5th. Of the European population in these parts, Europeans by birth, or descendants of them, who may have the will and necessary means to undertake cultivation in the native provinces, and who can agree with princes on this subject, shall address themselves to the commissioner general to receive an authority, which for the present, and till the king's decision regarding the principles of a more general system of colonization be received, shall be given in preference to Netherlanders by birth, and farther to such who, by a fixed residence through marriage or on other accounts, may be considered to stand in a nearer connection and interest with these parts.

Art. 6th. The resolution for the contracts of rents, which were in force on the 6th May 1823, remain still in force, in so far as the parties interested shall have no wish to change them; the same principles can be adopted in the new contracts which may be made; in which also shall not be neglected, that particular care shall be taken for the general good treatment of the natives; a promise for his rice field, and a reasonable payment for his labour all according to old and fixed usage on custom and institution.

Art. 7th. Advances on the fixed amount shall not exceed one year's rent. If they exceed this amount they are for account and risk of the farmer and cannot be recovered in land.

Singapore Chronicle, July 5th. 1827.

DUTY ON BEES'WAX IN JAVA.

The government of Java has laid on an additional duty of 10 rupees a picul on bees' wax, called a consumption duty, over and above the former import duty of 6 per cent if imported in a Dutch vessel, or 12, if in a foreigner. This is said to be intended less as a measure of finance than as a protection to the Netherlands trading company and to the manufacture in the mother country of cloths suited to the consumption of the Indian archipelago, in which no European nation has yet been able to compete with the native manufacturer, who must therefore be crippled by imposing a partial and oppressive duty, on a commodity essential to the exercise of his art., The new duty, with that which existed before, may be estimated at from 15 to 20 per cent. upon the average price of the article at the places from whence it is imported and may, if not counteracted by smuggling, have a very injurious effect upon the industry of the natives. The cloths in highest estimation are the sarongs of Solo and the batick handkerchiefs of Batavia, which are celebrated throughout the archipelago. It might be imagined that European science, applied as it has been of late years with such brilliant effect in every art, could produce cloths which from their beauty, the durability of their colours and at the same time their cheapness, would be preferred to all others; so much, however, is the reverse of this the fact, that European baticks of good quality have lately been sold here at from 12 to 15 dollars per corge of 20, whilst the price of Batavian baticks of a corresponding description may be fairly estimated at from 15 to 50 dollars, in such slender estimation are held, in the present instance, the boasted productions of European skill. Among the reasons of this may be enumerated the following; that, the colours of the European manufactures are notoriously evanescent, whilst those dyed by the natives are permanent, and never give way; that, the European, "with all appliances and means to boot," which might be expected to give him the advantage, does not in general execute his patterns so well as the natives; that, in dyeing or printing or some subsequent stage of preparation for export from Europe, some process is used by which the cloth itself is injured and consequently rendered less durable; and to these it may be added that patterns dyed in Europe, though professedly in imitation of the others, may nevertheless not always so exactly hit the native taste as those made by the people themselves upon the spot. The original texture of the cloth, as affecting the value of the article, need not be taken into calculation, as the *raw material* used by the European and the Indian dyer of baticks, is the same, the cloth employed by the natives being of European fabric, and for the most part English long-cloths or shirtings.

Of calico printing the Javanese have no idea, but they substitute for it a process which we shall endeavour in very few words to describe. The cloth being brought to the proper shape and dimensions, is stretched upon a frame, and in this state the outlines of the patterns are drawn, an operation which must be infinitely tedious, but which is performed with much beauty and precision by the Javanese women and girls. That part of the cloth which, for the present, is intended to remain white is then covered by the same hands with a thin coating of melted bees'wax, whilst that which is to receive the colour in the first vat is left bare. The cloth is then sent to the dyer, who is generally a Chinese, and, on being immersed in the vat, that part of it which was not covered with the wax takes the colour, whilst the rest remains white. If it is intended to give but two colours, the wax is then removed and the cloth immersed in a second vat, to colour what before was blank; but, by only partially removing the wax remaining after each immersion, any number of colours might be given. This is at best an awkward process, and, from the labour required, a very expensive one, but these disadvantages are well compensated by the stability of the colours and the prices which the cloths command. What dyeing materials are used, or how the colours are so indelibly fixed, we have no means of knowing; these things, however, might well merit the attention of the Dutch, who would pursue a more becoming policy if they would learn in fair rivalry to surpass their native fellow subjects in skill instead of invoking the aid of power to crush these humble and industrious artisans by the weight of oppressive duties.

We have no wish to indulge in exaggeration, but where a principle is once forsaken and a hurtful system entered on, none can tell how far it may be extended. There are manufactures in which a people so skilful and industrious as the Dutch must beyond all competition excel the natives; let the European subjects of the Netherlands confine themselves to these; or if not, and they will dabble in exotic arts, they should be taught to rest their hopes upon their merits alone, for nothing can be more cruel and at the same time more mistaken than the idea of benefiting a state by sacrificing the interests, perhaps the existence, of one class of subjects to pamper the unreasonable pretensions of another; pretensions tacitly resting on the ground of a want of skill which prevents their meeting their fellow-subjects in the fair field of an honourable competition. Individuals engaged in rivalry in general scorn to seek success but by their own efforts, but when united into classes and companies their nature seems to change, nothing is too unreasonable for them, the fine feeling we allude to is lost, and *aurum, aurum, quocunque modo aurum,* becomes the unmixed and universal impulse, and placed in competition with this blessed principle the commercial perdition of a rival class becomes a matter of very slight concern. Hence a callousness to all that is fair and just, a heartless disregard of what is due to others, unreasonable pretensions to favour, complaints if monopolies and protections are withheld and greater still if they are withdrawn. The feelings in which these evils originate are inwoven in our nature and not to be eradicated, nor is it desirable that they should; but they may be restrained: and we should conceive it to be the office of a benign government, anxious to diffuse as much happiness as possible among the mass of its subjects, to repress the inordinate claims of every individual class.

Singapore Chronicle, May 8th. 1828.

PORT REGULATIONS.

By the *Buitenzorg*, which vessel arrived here on the 12th instant, we have received advices from Batavia down to the 30th ultimo, from which we learn that the government of Java, has of late had very many and very serious deliberations and consultations with the comptrollers and collectors of the custom, as to the best means of putting a stop to the system of smuggling which has long been carried on to a considerable extent along the whole coast of Java, but of the existence of which, it appears, the government is only now becoming sensible. After much patient investigation, and mature reflection, the Dutch authorities have at last adopted measures which they flatter themselves will prove a sovereign remedy for this grievous and growing evil. The regulations just established are, we believe, as follows:

First.—"That all square-rigged vessels under foreign colors, shall have two European custom-house officers placed on board of them immediately on their anchoring in the roads, who shall remain there during the stay of the vessel; and that the ship-owner, and not the government, shall pay to each officer 10 guilders per day, and find them in board and lodging."

Secondly.—"That all descriptions of goods either imported or exported shall be opened at the custom-house, the number in each package counted—the length and breadth of each piece measured, and the qualities particularly examined and exactly ascertained."

These exceedingly judicious regulations, it is thought, will have the salutary effect of completely preventing the continuance of the extensive and profitable illicit trade,—which was created by the wise measures of the rulers of Java, and which has been so long fostered under the benign influence of their protecting duties,—and of rendering it impossible for the merchants to defraud the government by reporting their goods at the custom house to be of a worse quality than they really are, the duty being levied on the value of the article. After the numerous specimens we have had of the many commercial benefits resulting from Dutch legislation in India, it would be highly improper in us to call in question, even for a moment, the propriety or wisdom of these new regulations, although we cannot but entertain some doubts as to their operation: we are strongly inclined to suspect that they will not be found to work quite so well in practice as could be wished. There is one particular in the first regulation however, which we admire exceedingly, viz:—compelling the masters of vessels to pay the spies with which they saddle them. There is something *new* in this, and therefore we admire it; at it affords us ground to hope for some improvement in the policy of our neighbours. They have hitherto been ardent worshippers of "*the wisdom of our ancestors,*" and determined opponents of every thing which assumed the appearance of innovation. So new, indeed, is this measure that, we believe, the annals of the commerce of all ages do not furnish a single parallel to it;

for, who ever heard of a government imposing restrictions, regulations, and duties upon any branch of industry, and then compelling the parties upon whom such duties were imposed, to pay the officers appointed by it for the purpose of seeing that the regulations were attended to and the duties paid? No one, we feel assured, ever heard or dreamt of such a thing before. It was left for the government of Java to devise and carry it into effect. The first vessel upon whom this imposition was practiced, was the *Orynthia*: it was, of course, loudly complained of, but to no purpose, as captain Rixon we understand, was refused a port-clearance until he actually paid the money.

The second regulation, we presume, will very speedily work its own overthrow, as the custom-house officers, at whose recommendation it was adopted, have been the first to cry out against it. The delay and inconvenience already experienced from it, we understand, have been very great. Bales of woollens, cotton yarn, &c., are cut open, and their contents strewed about the custom-house. Cases of long-cloths and muslins are opened, and each piece minutely examined by a swarm of dirty understrappers, and soiled and tumbled about in such a reckless manner, that the goods are not only much depreciated in value, but rendered nearly unsaleable. After the filthy retinue of coolies employed in this work of destruction have performed their duties, the owner of the goods is left to re-pack them in the best way he can; and any one who knows how piece-goods are originally packed must be aware, that it is impossible to put them into such a state again, as to render them fit for shipping to another port. It is thought that this regulation has been adopted for no other purpose than to annoy the merchants, (some of whom had been incautiously boasting that they could smuggle in spite of the government regulations) and to throw every obstacle in the way of trade, on the pretence of preventing smuggling, which must be admitted to be a species of retalliation worthy of so liberal and enlightened a government.

[*Singapore Chronicle, November* 29. 1829.]

BATAVIA AFFAIRS.

In our number of the 12th April, we had occasion to notice the state of agitation and anxiety into which the commercial community of Batavia had been thrown by the intended interference of the Dutch colonial government in the then approaching election for the choice of directors of the Java bank for the ensuing year.

By the latest accounts we have from Batavia, we are happy to learn (happy, as enemies to all monopolies, and friends to a liberal and unfettered commerce)—of the complete triumph of the free trade and commercial interests there, over that of the Dutch company, assisted by government in the above bank question, the company's interest having been ousted in the exclusive system they were desirous to introduce into the bank, by a majority, in favor of the commercial candidate over that of the company's (a government paid servant) of 96!—a majority, which when narrowly looked into, affords a more convincing conclusion of the general feeling upon this question, than one hundred times the amount, if the beaten party had been composed of a mixed constituency. The majority was formed of a host of small votes from the various proprietors of bank stock not under the influence of government, while the votes opposed to it were composed as follows:

Government,	50	Votes.
His excellency the governor-general,	16	„
The director general of finances,	1	„
Individual votes of members forming the direction of the company	39	„
* Total poll for government candidate	106	„

Will any of our readers on perusing the above, allow that such an aggregate of votes was a fair test of the merits of the question in the public mind? Can such an *expose* be viewed in any other light than that of the strong arm determined, if possible, to crush the many little ones?

In another part of our present number we insert a copy of the petition of the merchants of Batavia to his excellency the governor-general on the subject of the bank question. We

* Every four shares gives a vote, but nobody can have more than 50 votes.

understand that Messrs. Doering, Mackenzie, and Zimmerman were deputed on the part of their brother-merchants to go up and present this petition to his excellency at his country-palace at Buitenzorg, but that their arguments were of no avail to the cause, his excellency, at the conclusion of the interview, having expressed his continued determination to support a government candidate, upon the so-far-honestly-avowed principle "of the necessity of government being able to *influence* the operations of the bank."

We understand that the merchants of Batavia acquit the governor-general of any sinister views in this attempt upon the liberties of their bank, considering as they do, that government has been blinded as to the effect of such a measure by the wily arguments of the president of the factory; and it was with a view to upset these fallacies of the monopolizing company, that the deputation abovementioned went up to Buitenzorg. Unfortunately, however, willing as his excellency the governor-general appears to be to assist the free trade of Java, as far as he is individually concerned, the interests of his majesty of Holland as a private share-holder in the Dutch company, and the machiavellian plots of its directors in India are more than his excellency can refuse an ear to. Had the Dutch company succeeded in the late contest at the bank, they would unquestionably have ruined the establishment, as the only object they have in view is to check the facilities which that establishment gives to the private trade, in order that it may not interfere with their own exclusive personal interests; to this alone they aim, regardless of the injury they inflict on the government and the people at large.

Let the public look to the *jails* of Java, and the wretched debtors who crowd them at the instance of the directors of the Dutch company, in proof of these assertions; and let the directors step forward, if they can, with a fair and honest balance of their books, and convince the world that our statements are incorrect—that the operations into which they cunningly lead the poor ignorant direction at home, (ignorant only as regards India affairs,) have been intended for the general good of the nation and share-holders, and not for the sake of the commission which the gentlemen directors pocket upon the aggregate of the business.

Petition of the Merchants of Batavia, to his Excellency the Governor-General of Netherlands India.

"*May it please your Excellency,*

"Whereas, we the undersigned merchants of Batavia have been informed that, at the meeting of the share-holders of the Java bank, to be held on the 7th instant, it is the desire of government that a new director should be selected *from amongst the servants of the government*; we the said undersigned merchants, considering how closely are allied the interests of the trade of Java, and the prosperity of the Java bank, can no longer view such an intention on the part of government without respectfully coming forward to impress upon your excellency our unanimous opinion of the injury which the bank as well as our trade is likely to suffer from such a measure, and to express to your excellency our earnest entreaty that the influence of government may not be employed for its attainment.

"In making this appeal to your excellency's excellent judgment, we consider it but our duty to impress upon your excellency our firm and unlimited conviction.

"That, the public confidence which the Java bank has heretofore enjoyed and the success which has been the fruit of that confidence have been mainly attributable to the commercial ability, prudence, and impartiality which have distinguished the present system of the direction in the exercise of their duties.

"That, as the objects of the Java bank are purely commercial, so it is our firm and united conviction that the qualifications necessary for fulfilling the duties of a director of that establishment are only to be found in individuals whose pursuits are wholly commercial also; and

"Therefore, that it is our united and firm conviction that the most injurious consequences to the trade of Java, and the profits of its bank, must ensue from the appointment of any individual in the employment of government who by his habits, education and pursuits *must necessarily* be wanting in that commercial knowledge, and intimacy with the banking system, and a local acquaintance with the trade, which alone can entitle him to the confidence of the commercial public from whom the profits of the bank are derived."

(*Here follows the signatures of the whole of the commercial community in Batavia, not connected with the government.*)

Singapore Chronicle, May 31. 1828.

Our letters from Batavia by the *Reliance* (up to 13th June,) continue to give the most gloomy accounts of the future prospects of free-trade on Java; and state that only one universal feeling of the greatest depression existed throughout the commercial community of all nations, from the fixed monopoly system which appeared to have taken root there.

By the above advices, it appears that the government of Java, after having already taken 40 per cent. upon all the productions of free coffee-gardens, as land-tax, has given positive orders that the remaining 60 per cent, although the bona-fide property of the planters themselves, must be bought up by the residents or government servants, for account of government;—and within a few days previous to the above date, three native chiefs of villages had been publicly flogged at *Tagal*, by order of the resident, for having infringed upon this order, or as his grace the duke of Newcastle would say, "having done what they willed with their own."

Let the world judge of the manner in which the spirit of treaties existing upon a reciprocal footing with the Dutch nation can be fulfilled under such a state of things. A government and united company making a monopoly of all the produce of a colony to the exclusion of every other interloper! But we shall overlook the reciprocity due by Holland to other nations in this case, and look only into that reciprocity (if support and protection be not obliterated from the Dutch language,) which the subject has a right to expect from the sovereign and nation whom his purse and blood support. Where is that now to be found in Java?—Where is the trade now left there to the Dutch merchants themselves?—Driven from *every article* which can form a remittance, where are they to look for a homeward freight for their ships? It is now no where to be found; and they have only to submit to be the tame and oppressed carriers of the Maatschapy of Batavia. Their ships come out empty, too happy even to be honored with a homeward freight from this dear pet of Dutch royalty.

Probably it may not be known to our readers that a very recent arrangement has been made at Batavia between the government and the Dutch company, by which the latter advanced five millions of guilders to the former by bills on their direction at home, receiving as security from government for these advances, all the coffee, sugar, spices and indigo which the government can deliver over to them within the next ten months; beside what Banca tin, and Japan copper may be required to make up the difference, short in amount upon the other goods. The whole of these goods are to be sold for account of the Dutch government, on a commission by the Dutch company at home, and the balance, (*if any*) handed over to his majesty! In such an unheard-of state of things, where is the province of the free merchant on Java? To what is he to turn his attention? Monopoly, armed with the power and ROD of government, every where surrounds him, and crushes every attempt at honest industry and exertions.

But it is not the European merchants only that are thus crushed and trampled upon; the natives writhe under the influence of all these exactions and operations still more painfully, and have now arrived at such a pitch of poverty and despair as has created the greatest alarm for the future peace of the island, in those who know their character and their sufferings. How can the free-born Javanese, long accustomed to the rights of a free people, be expected to continue long to submit tamely to forced labor, and forced deliveries of produce, when formerly his produce and his labor were both his own, upon the specified land-tax commenced under British sway, and guaranteed to them by the king of Holland?

The late revolt of the Chinese labourers at *Krawang* and the extermination of five-sixths of the unfortunate men, may be but considered a fore-runner to similar but greater evils, and cannot but lead the mind of every reflecting person to the most gloomy anticipations for the future, in the general discontent on Java. [*Singapore Chronicle*, 12. *July* 1832.]

KRAWANG AFFAIR.

TO THE EDITOR OF SINGAPORE CHRONICLE, AND THE EDITOR OF THE MORNING HERALD, LONDON.

Sir,

We have heard much in this settlement of the recent affray at *Krawang* in Java, with the recently imported Chinese labourers there, and of their *massacre* by the Dutch troops; and, if the version of the affair, as here current, be correct, it redounds not much to the honor of the government which executed it.

The circumstances, as now known to the public, are these:—In 1831, the Dutch government of Java, having already established experimental tea tree plantations, silk worm establishments, tanneries &c., at *Krawang*, (about 40 miles from Batavia,) resolved upon adding to them more extensively by the aid and skill of Chinese labourers, more especially those used to the culture of the tea plant. Contracts for this purpose were made with merchants at Batavia for the *delivery* of Chinese at so much per head, and the Dutch consul at Canton was instructed to induce emigration thence to Batavia, for the same purpose. Upon the faith of these engagements, a considerable number arrived from Manila, and were handed over to the Dutch government, at the stipulated rate of 50 guilders per head, and a further quantity come down from Canton, tempted by the promise of four dollars per month as wages, besides rice, &c. These people, (to the number of 40 or 50) had been at work at the above establishments for some months, in *ostensible* satisfaction, when all of a sudden, upon one fine night in May last, orders were received at the barracks of Batavia, *to march troops by break of day upon Krawang!* This was by no means a premature order; for, as it afterwards appeared, these newly imported *celestials* had risen "*en masse*;" set fire to and burnt the buildings of the several works at which they were employed; as well as the house of the resident, (who was obliged to make a midnight retreat of it;) and as it is said, murdered one or two Europeans, attached to the establishment. They had, besides, possessed themselves of some one or two six-pounders, with small arms found at the residency, and had assumed an attitude which menaced ravage and destruction to all the country around.—Such was the state of the case previous to the troops having been marched from Batavia, whence were despatched some 150 Europeans, and 400 native infantry. On their arrival at *Krawang*, or its vicinity, they found these Chinese in possession of the country; and indeed, with their great guns and other arms, prepared to resist force by force. Nothing dismayed by the attack of the regular forces, they opened a fire upon them with the cannon they had made themselves masters of, and carrying off four Europeans at the first shot, charged them with such fury as to force them to *give ground* for, at least, fifty paces. The result, however, was, as might have been expected,—the annihilation of the *celestial* force. About 300 to 400 of these unfortunate "sons of heaven" are said to have "bit the dust," or to have found a watery grave in the river adjoining to the field of action, in atonement for their temerity in having thus presumed to measure strength with their *amphibious* opponents!—The remainder were made prisoners, or escaped into the jungle. The determined heroism with which numbers of these poor deluded creatures rushed into a watery grave rather than fall into the hands of their cruel enemy, is said to have been as singular, as it must have been appalling; grasping each other, as they were seen to do, by the hand and with one wild, last shriek, plunging, 6 or 7 thus united, into their watery grave, never—never to rise more!

The loss on the part of the Dutch was trifling; some 8 or 10 European soldiers and a couple of civilians who had joined as volunteers. But I sit not down to relate these particulars—I am not the Homer of the tragedy, and have gone into the above narrative, only in as far as it has been essentially apologetic for my present intrusion. As the above circumstances have gone forth to the world together with the causes which gave rise to them, the good faith and humanity of our neighbours on Java are most seriously compromised; and it becomes the *duty* of the government of Java, if it be not indifferent to the good opinion of the world, to cast off this *obloquy*, by an investigation into the facts which can thus have justified so profuse a spilling of the blood of fellow-creatures, and to publish the result to the world.

The discontent of the part of the Chinese, which has just come to this lamentable issue, is said (I believe truly) to have originated in a variety of grievances—for which they could get no redress.—They, complained, of receiving only four guilders as monthly wages instead of four dollars as promised to them;

That, moreover, they were paid even these four miserable guilders in debased *copper money* instead of silver (a difference of about 30 per cent.) That they were forced to eat at warongs set up within the works, the property, and for the profit, of the mandors and inferior superintendents of the works—where although suffering under the privation of reduced pay and hard labor—they had to pay three times the value of what these meals would have cost them at free warongs outside; and

That they were constantly subject to severe corporeal chastisement for murmuring against this state of things or infringing on the above perquisites, by seeking a cheaper meal than their taskmasters would allow them.

These, with minor grievances, are said to have been the sole cause of their "strike" (so we would call it in England) and if they have been as represented, I must say that, at the least, the Dutch government was bound to have brought the celestials to a *parley* before the work of extermination commenced.

It is but the commonest justice to a menacing but inferior antagonist to ask his reasons for such an attitude before you deliberately bring him down with your rifle.—Common sense forces upon us the presumption that the weaker attacks not the stronger, but in resentment for wrongs. Had the Dutch government, acting upon this reflection only, thought fit to despatch a deputation of friendly Chinese to their countrymen to enquire into the causes of their grievances, to remonstrate with them upon their then course and to promise a hearing for their complaints instead of pouring a volley bullets into their bodies, a very different result might have been expected and the government would not stand as it now does, called upon before God and man, to justify itself in taking away the lives of so large a number of human beings.

For the sake of humanity and in generosity to our neighbours I beg of you, Mr. editor, to give these remarks to the world.

His excellency the governor-general of Java whose character and standing in the world are too well established to sustain a personal tarnish by this affair may, upon perusing these remarks, see the necessity, which has hitherto not been the case, of naming a committee of enquiry into the matter. Until that be done and the result published to the world I maintain that the aspersion of a *foul* and *horrible massacre* will ever blot the annals of his government in Java.

HUMANITAS.

P. S—It may not be amiss, in pointing out the horrid features of the above affair to state, that the savage feeling exhibited towards the unfortunate labourers of *Krawang* not only extended to them, but to every *celestial* who, residing in that part of the country, fell in the way of European or native troops; in consequence of which a great many peaceable Chinese quite unconnected with this affair met an untimely grave. Among these were 13 Canton chinamen, maniculators of tea. These people were much above the common run of the labourers, and had been brought from Canton by Mr. Jacobson (the inspector of the tea cultivation on Java) whence they had been seduced from their families with the greatest difficulty by promises of all sorts of kindness, besides good pay. It seems that both these had ceased; for these chinamen, who lived at a considerable journey from the works where the tumult broke out, were obliged to send four of their number to the works, to represent their case to the resident; and most unluckily for them just as the affair had broken out. What was the consequence? These unfortunate people, quite unconnected with the rest of their countrymen were rewarded for their mission by being *hung up* (*murdered*) at the residency. A day or two afterwards their remaining 9 companions went in a body to see why the others had not returned, but on the road they were met by a body of natives commanded by an European when the quiet unoffending people were surrounded and massacred like so many wild beasts. These facts, Sir, are publicly stated all over this archipelago and if they be incorrect, let the Dutch government of Java, that last living specimen of arbitrary European monopoly, faithlessness and treachery, come forward and disprove them.

Singapore, June, 1832.

[*Singapore Chronicle, 28. June* 1832.]

BATAVIA AFFAIRS.

We have been favored with a letter from a correspondent at Batavia, enclosing the subjoined "official publication," as extracted and translated from the *Java Courant* of the 18th instant which he wishes us to insert in our paper for the information of our readers.

Our correspondent appears anxious to justify the Java government, in their interference between the native growers of coffee and the contractors, on the plea that the growers received from the contractors the paltry sum of four rupees, copper currency, per picul, for their coffee, when the tree had scarcely blossomed, and that this sum was expended before the crop could be gathered in; so that the "deceived natives" *gained* a complete loss by the transaction.

We are ignorant, however, whether the above four rupees were given merely as an advance, or as the ultimate price of the coffee. If the latter, it was indeed a paltry sum, considering the present high price of coffee in Java.

Still, we cannot see what occasion there was for the interference of the government; or

why a government monopoly of coffee should be established, under the pretext that the natives have been losers, this year, by the contracts they themselves were parties to. Experience would have taught them to improve their bargains in future, and matters would finally find their equilibrium, without the interference of the government, and certainly without the necessity of creating a new monopoly.

The following is the official notice alluded to.

"*EXTRACT of the Regulations of the Governor General in Council of Netherlands India, Buitenzorg 8th August,* 1832.

READ AND OBSERVE.

"It is after right deliberation found good and concluded, under the approbation of the king, for the future regulations which shall be necessary to carry those resolutions in execution provisionally to fix,

"*First.*—That to commence with the year 1833 all coffee subject to landtax cultivated by the natives of Java, above the share thereof indebted for land-tax must be delivered in the course of that year, to the government at the market price.

"*Second.*—That all coffees delivered to the government and not required by them to discharge the India debt to Holland shall be disposed of by public sale in Java to the highest bidders.

"*Third.*—To promulgate those resolutions, the fullest publicity will be given by the residents in their respective residencies, and that they are ordered to be published in the *Staads Blad* and *Java gazette.*"

Signed by the secretaries to the government of Netherlands India.

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS OF JAVA FROM 1823 *TO* 1832.

ARTICLES.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
Coffee	285,153	242,190	277,622	340,059	394,558	416,172	281,662	288,732	299,086	314,173
Pepper	3,198	2,938	8,142	4,480	4,373	8,226	6,454	6,061	7,836	7,075
Indigo ..... *lbs.*	„	„	5,818	9,691	8,284	23.610	46,369	22,063	42,841	168,211
Arrack .. *Leaguers*	605	468	175	433	464	534	1,397	1,927	1,497	2,000
Hides..... *No.*	36,637	58,091	44,635	75,344	59,662	47,400	44,321	30,249	63,271	82,386
Mace	428	1,486	935	556	1,085	600	186	177	745	947
Nutmegs	1,341	3,327	3,471	2,237	5,931	1,648	1,159¾	1,304	2,550	3,819
Cloves	1,726	1,748	1,930	542	777	1,832	2,434	803	1,531	5,144
Sugar	53,281	46,545	16,357	19,795	32,220	25,879	73,780	108,640	120,298	245,872
Tin	11,762	30,186	9,113	13,806	16,349	19,555	23,958	21,426	30,252	47,801
Rice ..... *Coyans*	4,367	7,419	8,293	5,895	9,971	15,538	15,122	14,521	18,637	23,072
Rattans.....	5,402	2,475	3,527	4,138	15,196	31,301	30,400	5,094	5,188	14,323
Tortoiseshell	$26\frac{93}{100}$	$47\frac{37}{100}$	$22\frac{53}{100}$	$28\frac{15}{100}$	$19\frac{12}{100}$	$37\frac{05}{100}$	$83\frac{42}{100}$	$43\frac{80}{100}$	$95\frac{67}{100}$	$141\frac{43}{100}$
Beche de Mer....	905	2,437	2,540	1,828	2,124	2,896	5,228	4,908	4,059	5,378
Bird's Nests	232	222	233	211	218	243	260	261	246	322

SLAVE TRADE

AT THE ISLAND OF NIAS.

In 1820, in compliance with the repeated solicitations of many of the principal chiefs of the Island of Nias for the protection of the company, Sir T. S. Raffles, then lieutenant governor of Bencoolen, deputed Mr. Prince, accompanied by the late doctor Jack, to visit the island, and to form there, if deemed advisable, one or more settlements in situations that might appear best adapted for the purpose. Their first object was to ascertain to whom the actual sovereignty of the island belonged, and whether there were any supreme authority competent to enter into terms with them for the whole; but they found that none such existed. To the king of Acheen the people of Nias acknowledged no subjection, and it did not appear that his authority ever prevailed in the island. The whole country, it was found, had been immemorially divided among a number of independent chiefs, with whom it became necessary to form separate agreements. The northern districts as far south as a port called Gunong Lembo, had long considered themselves under the protection of the company, and had even been in the habit of hoisting the English flag, and making appeals and references to Natal—an acknowledgement which was paid in consequence of assistance which had been afforded them against Acheenese pirates who infested their coasts, and at one time threatened a serious invasion.

Proceeding to visit the principal parts, Mr. Prince and Dr. Jack invited the chiefs connected with each to a conference, the result of all which was an agreement under which British settlements were made at the ports of Tello Dalam and Lavago, and parties of sepoys landed to secure the respectability of the flag.

The interest which the island of the Nias then possessed, has in a great measure passed away with the cession of Bencoolen and our other settlements on the west coast of Sumatra; but the report of the mission addressed to Sir T. S. Raffles, a copy of which is now before us, is an ably written document, and contains a minute account of the slave trade as carried on at Nias, which we deem of sufficient permanent interest to be laid before our readers. The evils of such a traffic are depicted in a manner well calculated to inspire distrust of the eulogiums which have been lavished on this commerce, as conducing highly to the happiness of all who are fortunate enough to become its victims.

"All the evils," says the report, "arising from the imperfection of their civil institutions, have been aggravated and increased by the odious traffic in slaves; and as this subject is one of peculiar interest, we have been particular in obtaining the most minute information concerning its extent, causes, and origin. The greatest number of slaves has hitherto been exported from Lemenbawa and Tello Dalam; those from the northern parts have been much fewer. It is by no means easy to get an exact account of their numbers; some endeavouring to extenuate and diminish it, and others equally desirous of magnifying it, according as they wished to give us a favourable impression of their conduct or a high idea of their wealth; and the very nature of the trade, in some measure, precludes exactness. From a comparison, however, of these different accounts, checked by an estimate of the number of vessels resorting thither, and the value of their imports, we are satisfied that the annual number exported has not fallen short of 1,500. According to some accounts, more than this have been carried from Lemembawa alone; but we think the above estimate will be found nearer the truth. They are purchased chiefly by Acheenese and Chinese vessels; the latter of which carry them to Padang and Batavia.

"The circumstances that attend this traffic are no less revolting to humanity, than those which marked it on the coast of Africa. The unhappy victims, torn by violence from their

friends and country, and delivered, pinioned hand and foot, to the dealers in human flesh, are kept bound during the whole course of the voyage—a precaution which is considered necessary to the safety of the crew. Instances have occurred where the captives have seized a moment of liberty to snatch up the first weapon within their reach, stab all whom they encountered, and complete the scene by leaping overboard and voluntarily seeking a watery death. In their own country, the Nias people rarely make use of rice as food, and are almost unacquainted with the use of salt. The sudden change of diet to which they are subjected on boardship, added to the confinement and dejection of mind, prove fatal to many. Of a cargo of thirty slaves, twenty have been known to perish before the conclusion of the voyage; and on a moderate calculation it may be estimated, that, of the total number purchased, one fourth never reach their destination, but fall victims to the various circumstances above mentioned.

"On the scenes of violence that take place in the country itself, in the search for victims, it will be needless to dwell; they can be better imagined than described. We shall merely relate one well authenticated instance, as given by an eye witness. A plan had been laid to attack a single insulated house inhabited by a man, his wife, and children, and to seize the whole family. At the appointed hour, the house was surrounded; but the man no sooner discovered his situation, understood the purpose, and saw that there was no escape, than he locked himself into the inner apartment, drew his kris, killed first his wife and children, and then plunged it in his own breast, preferring death to a life of slavery.

"Such are the circumstances which our inquiries have brought to light. It is impossible to view a people possessed of such high qualities as we have described, subject to such evils without feeling the strongest interest in their favour. They have appealed to Britain for protection, they have placed themselves under her flag, and now look to her for the restoration of peace and tranquillity to their distracted country. We cannot forbear recording the remarkable expression of one of the chiefs of Tello Dalam, on our threatening to leave the place in displeasure if he failed to comply with a request we had made; he earnestly entreated us not to harbour such a thought for a moment; "have patience with us," he said, "we are ignorant, uninstructed people, but we are desirous of obtaining the means of improvement; formerly we looked to the Malays and Acheenese, but they deceived us; if you should now desert us, from whom can we entertain any hope."

"With a view to ascertain the best means of effecting the suppression of this nefarious commerce, we have been minute in our enquiries into the causes and origin of slavery in Pulo Nias, and the mode in which slaves are procured. Slavery is recognized by their laws and customs; it is the punishment ordained for certain crimes; and it is permitted as the ultimate resource in cases of debt. These customs have no doubt been much increased in severity by the temptation of an external demand, and are often employed on very slight pretences; but they are quite inadequate to account for the great numbers actually exported. We have abundant proof that the greater number are made slaves *by open and actual violence*. The rajahs had little hesitation in admitting the fact, but said, the system originated with *foreigners*, and that the source of the evil was *without*. In fact the temptation of exorbitant gain, and the persuasion of the dealers who resort to the ports, prove too much for their self-denial, and induce the more unprincipled among them to have recourse to every means of fraud, stratagem, or violence to procure victims to their avarice.

"It must not be forgotten to record the few instances we have met with of chiefs whose virtue has been proof against temptation. Those of Roheeli and Gunong Lembo deserve in this respect the highest praise; not only have they absolutely prohibited the traffic in their own districts, but even refuse to permit the transit of slaves from the interior, or the disposal of them in any manner at their respective ports. We have had still greater reason to be satisfied with the conduct of the rajah of Lemembawa; on first opening the subject to him and explaining our views and intentions, he expressed his own approbation, but wished to communicate with the chief of the interior, with whom he was connected, before entering into such important engagements. The answer proved unfavourable, and the rajah was threatened with vengeance if he received us. After some consultation, however, he came on board and acquainted us, that he was determined to disregard the threats of the interior chief, and to enter into agreements with us. He professed himself ready to place himself under our authority, and to shut his port against all exportation of slaves, on condition of our affording protection and encouragement to its legitimate commerce. This was peculiarly gratifying, as Lemembawa has hitherto been the greatest slave port on the island, and therefore the one where

we expected to meet with the greatest difficulties. Indeed it is but justice to the different chiefs to say, that, on full discussion, they entered into our views with regard to the slave trade with more cordiality than could have been expected.

"The measures therefore to be adopted for its suppression, appear to divide themselves into three branches: 1st, to check as much as possible the external demand; 2d, to endeavour to soften and modify the severity of the native customs; and 3d, to provide the means of relief to debtors, and such as by existing usages are liable to the condition of slavery. The first depends upon our vigilance; and we have accordingly established such port regulations (*they had formed settlements and hoisted the British colours,*) and adopted such local arrangements as may facilitate this object, by obliging all vessels to take a pass or port-clearance from the company's representative at Tello Dalam or Lavago, and directing the confiscation of any vessel or boat in which slaves may be discovered.

"The second object will be of slower attainment; the change in their customs will be effected gradually and by persuasion, and several practices will fall into disuse of themselves, when the temptation which maintains them is withdrawn; and the chiefs have, on the whole, shewn so much willingness to attend to our suggestions, that we entertain hopes of great improvement as our influence extends. We have declared, that no malay or other foreign settler shall in future be permitted to avail himself of the native custom in regard to debts, either to recover such exorbitant interest, or to possess himself of the person of his debtor; and as they are the principal agents of the slave trade, and have most of the disposable capital in their hands, this prohibition will be attended with good effects. The domestic slaves of the Nias people themselves are considered as part of the family, and are never parted with to foreigners, so that their condition is less a subject of commiseration.

"In reference to the third point, the means of affording relief to debtors, and enabling such persons to redeem themselves from slavery, we determined, on full consideration of the subject, to adopt the principles of the regulations framed by you, (Sir T. S. Raffles) for the reform of the mengiring system at Bencoolen, which appear to us admirably adapted to the circumstances of this island, and to afford the utmost relief to the debtor, consistent with the just claims of the creditor. Agreeably to these, any person who had fallen into the condition of a slave, or was liable to it from inability to pay the amount of his debt, might redeem himself by entering into a voluntary contract with any person who should agree to pay the amount, to serve for a specified period of time, proportionate to the sum paid, such sum being considered as an advance to be liquidated by a certain definite service to be rendered by the debtor. Thus in lieu of absolute and unlimited slavery, will be substituted a system of free and voluntary contract, by which the debtor or slave enters at once on all the privileges of freedom, subject only to the fulfilment of an equitable contract, at the same time that the interest of the creditor is fully secured.

"A plan so obviously beneficial and equitable, could not fail to meet with the concurrence of the Nias chiefs, as it, in fact, gives as much security to the creditor as the present system of slavery, and is in an eminent degree favourable to the debtor. We required of the different rajahs the number of persons at present in a state of slavery on account of debt, in order to take measures for effecting their redemption on the above principle as soon as practicable, and the result of these inquiries strongly proves what we have above asserted, that the majority of the slaves are made so by violence, or on very unjust pretences, for, we scarcely met with an instance in which they had a single slave on hand whose redemption or sale they wished to effect. The answer was uniformly, "we have none, but if you wish to purchase slaves, wait a few days, and you may have a hundred." On enquiring further how this was to be effected, we found that they had only to send notice to their agents among the interior rajahs, and any number were forthwith brought down bound. They probably sent word to catch so many slaves with as much indifference as they would have given an order to catch so many hogs for the same purpose. The fact is, the arrival of the trading boats which takes place at a certain season, is the signal for universal rapine and violence throughout the interior; hostile tribes endeavour to entrap stragglers belonging to their opponents, and the most frivolous pretences are resorted to where violence is not deemed expedient.

"It is painful to dwell on this part of the picture, but we hope the time is not far distant when, with the temptation from without, these scenes of violence will cease and be forgotten, tranquillity be restored, and industry, no longer repressed by insecurity and danger, awake to new life and to new energies. We think the measures commenced, if followed up and extend-

ed, are adequate to effect these desirable objects, and we trust that the people of this interesting island will hereafter look to the period of their placing themselves under the fostering care of Britain, as the commencement of a better era and of happier times.

"The benefits arising from the abolition of the slave trade, will not be confined to the relief of the unhappy victims alone, but will be much more extensively felt as the first step to the civilization of the country, and the removal of the greatest check to its industry. Independently of the habits of cruelty and rapine which it tends to infuse, the exorbitant profits it holds out, like those of gambling, create an aversion to the slower advantages of legitimate commerce and agricultural labour. In order to convey their produce to the sea-ports, the inhabitants of the interior are at present obliged to unite into parties of several hundred, all completely armed, and with their loads of rice on their backs, descend in order of battle to the shores to dispose it. Such is the general insecurity and distrust, that the husbandman goes armed to his labour in the fields, that they select the most difficult situations for their villages, and construct their houses with every precaution against surprise. Their laws have, from the temptation of the slave trade, acquired a savage and cruel character, that was probably originally unknown to them, and feuds have been perpetuated that would probably otherwise have long since passed into oblivion. It is unnecessary to point out the innumerable advantages that must arise from stopping the source from whence all these evils have flowed. It will require no special interposition of foreign influence; the course of improvement will be spontaneous and natural; confidence will gradually be restored; the operations of agriculture and commerce will no longer be interrupted, and British influence may be exerted with success in reconciling feuds and re-uniting the now divided and hostile tribes into a community of interests, while those laws which derive their worst features from the facility of selling slaves, will by degrees fall into disuse and give way to a milder code."

[*Singapore Chronicle, April* 24. 1828.]

ON THE DIFFERENT RACES OF THE HORSE IN THE MALAYAN ARCHIPELAGO AND ADJACENT COUNTRIES.

The first observation which occurs touching the natural history of the horse in the countries described in the title of this notice is, that the full-sized animal is not to be found within them, a circumstance which, as far as we know, applies to every country lying east of the Burrampooter, and south of the tropic. The race however diversified, in short, is little better than a pony. This fact after quitting Bengal is first noticed in the countries of Cassay, Ava, and Pegue. Here the horse seldom equals 13 hands high, but is active, spirited, and well formed. Such as are sent abroad are all castrated, and therefore inferior in style and beauty to the ponies brought from the islands. They are used in war, never for carriage, and not often for burden.

As we proceed to the south and east, the horse becomes more diminutive, and those of Lao, Siam, and the southern provinces of China are inferior in size and beauty to those of Ava and Pegue. The Siamese and Cochin-Chinese have no cavalry and make no use of their ponies except for riding on ordinary occasions. Even for this last purpose, they are not esteemed, the elephant being always preferred as a more respectable and dignified mode of conveyance.

It will appear at first sight a little singular that the horse is not naturalized in any part of the Malayan peninsula, but this is accounted for by the character of the country and the habits of the people. There are no plains or roads, and the inhabitants living almost exclusively on the low and woody banks of the rivers, naturally substitute their canoes and boats for beasts of carriage and burden.

Proceeding eastward in the Malayan islands, the horse first occurs in the interior of Sumatra and here we have two of the best breeds known in these countries, the Achin and Batta, both very spirited but small, and better suited for draft than the saddle.

Of all the countries of the archipelago, the horse is most frequent in the island of Java. The Javanese pony is generally larger than that of Sumatra and has more the form of a horse, is more temperate, but less gay and handsome. Two distinct races may be described—that of the plains, and that of the mountains. The first of these is somewhat coarse—somewhat sluggish in disposition, and so large as occasionally to reach the height af 13 hands and an inch. The second is small and hardy, and as in the case of the kuningan, a breed in the interior of Cheribon, sometimes very handsome. The horse is used in Java for the saddle and as a beast of burden, but never by the natives in agricultural labour or any species of draft. Europeans use them extensively in their carriages, and on the level and well-constructed roads of Java, the traveller is conveyed at the rate of 12 and even 15 miles an hour in a carriage drawn by four of these little animals. We must take this opportunity, however, to remark that there is no advantage whatever in the employment of this diminutive breed of cattle, but the contrary; and that they must of necessity give way in the progress of improvement to a larger sized and more efficient one. This is a fact which might easily be proved by many examples. One will be sufficient. A pair of good English post-horses will go a stage of 15 miles on such roads as those of Java without difficulty. To perform the same distance in a carriage of the same weight requires 12 Javanese ponies. One horse therefore is equal to six ponies, and as at the utmost a full-grown horse will not consume above double the food of a pony the charge of maintaining him in proportion to the work he is capable of performing is no more than one third. The first cost of the full-sized horse may be argued against this statement, but even here there is an advantage, for the price (the animal being of course once acclimated and become hardy) would depend upon the expense of rearing and this on the quantity of food con-

sumed. A horse therefore ought to cost no more than double the price of a pony. In other matters, the inutility of the pony needs scarcely be insisted upon. He is but poorly fitted for carrying burdens and useless for the plough—the cart, or the purposes of a cavalry. When the English arrived in Java in 1811, there were only three large horses on the island and these worn out and of very inferior cast. Since that time a considerable number of large horses have been introduced, and even some progress made in rearing them. This is a subject which deserves the attention of the Batavia government and we may hint that the proper plan for the encouragement of breeding horses is the institution of premiums and races, and not the formation of an extensive stud as established in Bengal.

The horse, but of a very inferior breed, is found on the islands of Bali and Lombok. Passing over these we come to the island of Sambawa which produces two different races—that of Tamboro and Bima. The last, especially those of Gunong Api, are by far the handsomest breed of the archipelago and are extensively exported. The Bima ponies possess strength, symmetry, and beauty; and at first appearance bear some resemblance to the Arab. Upon a closer examination, however, it does not appear that they are entitled to be considered as possessed of the qualities designated BLOOD in the language of the turf and which is only to be found in the Arab and his descendant, the English race horse. The limbs indeed exhibit this character, but it is wanting in the skin and coat which are thick and harsh and it is not even present in the shape and expression of the head although very pretty.

After passing Sambawa, the horse is traced to Flores, Sandal-wood island, and Timor; but no where further to the east; being unknown in the Moluccas, New Guinea and the neighbouring islands. Next to Java the horse is found in the greatest abundance on the island of Celebes. Upon the whole, we consider this to be the best breed of the archipelago. In beauty indeed it is inferior to the Bima pony, but unites beyond any of the other races, the qualities of strength—size—speed—bottom, and action. Accordingly when the English in Java indulged their national propensity for horse-racing the prime runners were the ponies of Celebes. The natives use them for war and in the chase but put them to no purpose of useful labour.

In the great island of Borneo, the horse is found only in its north eastern extremity opposite to the Suluk cluster, where also, as well as in the group of the Philippine islands, it is frequent. The Philippine pony bears some resemblance to that of Celebes, but judging from the specimens we have seen, is somewhat larger than this and in figure and beauty inferior to the breeds of Sambawa, Java and Sumatra. We do not imagine that it contains any admixture of the Spanish blood although this has been suspected.

Within the archipelago as in other parts of the world, the colour of the horse is singularly connected with quality, temper and locality. The prevailing colour of the Achin ponies is pye-ball which becomes rarer and rarer as we proceed eastward. A Bima pony of this color is as rarely seen as a black Arab. The prevailing color of the Batta pony is bay and mouse color. In Java the best horses are those of the most prevalent colors viz. bays and greys; and roan and mouse coloured horses are very generally good. The worst colors are black and chestnut. The Javanese have such a dislike to the latter color that chestnut horses are not permitted to appear at their public tournaments. Bays, greys, and duns are the best and most frequent colors in the Bima ponies. Blacks and chestnuts are not frequent, but they are not considered inferior. Greys and bays prevail amongst the ponies of Celebes and the Philippines nearly to the exclusion of all others.

There is one interesting question which deserves a few words. Is the horse a native of the Indian archipelago? This is a point involved in as much difficulty here as in every other part of the world, America excepted. Looking to the physical character of these islands, seldom containing grassy plains fit to pasture the horse, we should not at first view be disposed to consider this animal indigenous. This would seem to be confirmed if Mr. Marsden's derivation of the most common native term can be relied upon. This word KUDA he derives from the Indian word GHORA, from which it might appear that the islanders derived the horse from the country of the Hindus. But this most probably would equally be the case if the Hindus instructed the islanders in taming and breaking in the horse, so that etymology leaves us just where we were. The horse is found wild only in the plains of Celebes but it so happens that this is just the country, which etymology seems to decide is not the native place of the horse for the name which he bears in the dialects of that island is borrowed from the Javanese, and indeed by one idiom he is designated the "Buffalo of Java."

[*Singapore Chronicle, August* 1825.]

HINDU - CHINESE COUNTRIES.

The term Hindu-Chinese was, we think, first employed by Dr. Leyden, and it is certainly more appropriate than the vague and clumsy one of the old geographers "India beyond the Ganges." The Hindu-Chinese countries may be correctly stated to extend from the 7th to the 26th degree of N. latitude, and from E. longitude 93° to E. logitude 109°. The whole of this region is at present divided among three great powers viz. the Cochin-chinese who hold the eastern portion—the Siamese who hold the central—and the Burmans who hold the western part. Besides mountaineers, and other small and uncivilized tribes which are numerous, this wide region contains eight considerable nations; viz. the Aracan or Rakteng—the proper Burman—the Pegu or Mon—the Siamese or Thai—the Lao frequently written Laos—the Kambojan or Khamen—the Cochin-chinese and Tonquinese, called by themselves Anam and by their neighbours Yuan—and the Malays. These, with the exception of the latter, form one great group of nations who altho' at the eastern and western extremities they partake respectively of the character of Chinese and Hindu civilization—bear each other a strong resemblance in point of language, religion, institutions, and general character. Notwithstanding this general resemblance, however, they speak distinct dialects—entertain strong national antipathies, and as one of them in point of civilization is much superior to another, no disposition exists among them to amalgamate, or to unite easily and peaceably into one or more extensive empires.

Amidst the general similitude here referred to, some striking discrepancies must be noticed. The Burmans—the Peguans—the Siamese—the Lao and the Kambojans profess the worship of Buddh with scarcely any variation—they are bigoted and overrun with priests. In Cochin-china and Tonquin, on the contrary, buddhism is a sect which has made but slender progress, and its priests are at best despised and neglected. Of the whole of this group of nations it may be said that in point of civilization they are greatly inferior to the Chinese—inferior to the Hindus—the Persians—the Arabians—and the agricultural Tartars, but that they stand considerably higher than any of the nations of the Asiatic islands. There are some palpable and unequivocal signs of barbarism about them which all their pride cannot conceal; such as being dirty in their persons—indiscriminate in their diet—holding female virtue cheaply—being cruel—and not viewing corporal punishment or hard words as any disgrace. According to our notions it is not easy to be respectable with such a catalogue of infirmities, and in truth the Hindu-Chinese nations are not much intitled to our esteem.

Taking the three great states in the order in which we have enumerated them, the following is a sketch of Cochin-china. It is bounded to the east by the sea—to the north by the Chinese provinces of Canton, Quangsi, and Yu-nan, and to the west by the dominions of Siam principally consisting of Lao. The boundary between Cochin-china and Siam on the gulf of the latter is well ascertained to be the island of Koh-Kong between the 11th and 12th degrees of latitude. The dominions of Cochin-china seem no where to touch directly upon those of Ava. The most easy intercourse between them might be carried on by the great river of Kamboja called by the Burmans Meh-kwan-mit.

The Burmans have settlements towards the upper part of this stream before it enters Tonquin, but the territory of Lantao a sub-division of Laos under Siam, intervenes. This last is, we presume from its situation, the country which the editor of Bissachere announces as a new kingdom and a new geographical discovery, and which in his fabricated and unfaithful work (lauded notwithstanding in the Edinburgh review) he places in the title-page as one of the dependant kingdoms of the present Cochin-chinese empire.

The Cochin-chinese empire is of very irregular and unequal form. It is at present divided into three great municipal jurisdictions or distinct governments; viz. that of Tonquin containing 15 provinces—that of Cochin-china containing 9, and that of Kamboja containing 6. Ton-

quin is the largest—the most fertile and populous of these. It is inhabited by the nations called by themselves Anam, the progenitors of the present race of conquerors of the whole empire!

The sub-division of Cochin-china itself extends from about the latitude of 18 north to between 10 and 11 south. It is but a narrow strip of land running along the coast and which seldom exceeds 15 or 20 leagues broad. It is generally bounded to the west by the kingdom of Lao. In the province the people of Anam appear as conquerors. The original inhabitants known by the name of Loy are now confined to the mountains, and still follow a modification of the Hindu religion. This is the country called Chams in our maps.

The province of Kamboja is but a modern acquisition. It extends from Cape St. James's between the 10th and 11th degrees of N. latitude in the China sea, to nearly the same parallel on the gulf of Siam; thus embracing the whole peninsula of Kamboja. In the interior and along the course of the great river, it extends much further, reaching at least as far as the 14th degree of latitude. The most numerous portion of the inhabitants of this province are the proper Kambojans. The Anam race are the masters. The original inhabitants of that portion of it lying to the eastward of the great river, and bordering upon Lao are a tribe called Mai.

Within the dominions of Cochin-china there are two great rivers, that of Tonquin, and that of Kamboja, and the presence or absence of these determines the general character and aspect of the country. The vallies of Tonquin and Kamboja through which they flow are extensive, fertile, and comparatively populous. The rest of the kingdom, especially the province of Cochin-china consist of primitive mountains, and narrow vallies, and in proportion to the other two parts, is thinly inhabited.

The river of Tonquin is described, as having its origin in the mountains of Yunan, and is conjectured to run a course of above 400 miles. The river of Kamboja has a much longer course. It is said to have its origin in a lake within the Chinese province of Yunan, and to be navigable for boats before entering Lao between the 22nd and 23rd degrees of N. latitude. It is evidently one of the largest rivers in Asia, and altho' it is not probable that it conveys so large a body of water as the Ganges or has, by any means, such a number of tributary streams, it would appear to run as long a navigable course which may be conjectured at not less than 1500 miles, the whole of which is within the tropics. It flows through the kingdoms of Lao and Kamboja falling into the sea in about the lat. of 10. by three distinct mouths.

The following is a brief sketch of Siam. To the east it may generally be described as being bounded by the Cochin-chinese territories—to the north it touches upon Yunan, but more generally on the Burman territories—to the west and N. west it is bounded by the Burman frontier as far as the latitude of 11 south at the river of Pakchan opposite the island of Domel, and in every other direction by the bay of Bengal and the straits of Malacca. To the south the Siamese territories extend to the latitude of 7th north and are here bounded by the Malay states of Queda and Patani, both of which, as well as three other Malay states, viz. Perak, Calantan, and Tringanu are tributaries to the Siamese—thus carrying their boundary down to between the 3rd and 4th degrees of latitude. In the map of colonel Symes, the Burman frontier is pushed down to between the 17th and 18th degrees of latitude. This may probably have had its origin in the exaggerations of his Burman informers for there does not appear, from all we have been able to learn, any just grounds for this assumption. From the best information we have been able to obtain we are inclined to fix the extreme northern limit of the Siamese territory, where it touches upon China, in between the 22nd and 23rd degrees and where it touches on the Ava territory between the 21st and 22nd, and its western limit where it is bounded by the Burman territories, in about the 98th degree of E. longitude.

The Siamese empire consists of the following members, of each of which a rapid notice will be necessary viz. Siam or the proper country of the Siamese or dominant race—the kingdom of Lao a portion of Kamboja,—a small portion of the Mon or Pegu territory with the tributary Malay states—and those of some mountain tribes.

The proper Siamese called by themselves Thai, occupy principally the valley of the Menam and the country watered by its tributary streams from the latitude of 13 to about 20. They also occupy the whole of the Peninsula from the head of the gulf down to the latitude of 7 where at Trang on one side and Sungora on the other, they meet the Malay nation. From Trang up to Pak-chan in the latitude of 11, the Peninsula is occupied by the Siamese race and they at present possess the exclusive dominion of this portion. This includes the island of Junk-Ceylon, the inhabitants of which are Siamese, and the possession of which, with exceptions

scarcely worth naming has always belonged to them. It may be proper to mention however that in the year 1810 the Burmans invaded this place for the last time with a large force and kept possession of it for several months. Being however without provisions, the people of the country being hostile to them, and a Siamese force having presented itself, they were compelled to surrender at discretion. On this occasion the chiefs were beheaded, and the lower orders, to the number of 4000, carried off as prisoners and slaves to Siam where many of them are still to be seen in the same state.

From Pak-chan up to Martaban in the lat. of 16° 30. two thirds of the Peninsula or of the territory lying between the western sea, and the valley of the Menam still belong to the Siamese. Opposite to the port of Tavoy the Burman boundary is marked by three pagodas or temples. Both the island of Junk-Ceylon and the whole coast of Tenasserim constitute a mountainous, woody, almost uncultivated and very thinly inhabited region, remarkable for no valuable property, except the abundance of its tin ore, and the existence of good harbours to the eastward of Junk-Ceylon.

The next most important member of the Siamese empire is Lao; the people of which speak a dialect of the Siamese, and have long formed an integral portion of the empire. The bulk of this nation inhabits the valley of the great Kamboja river from the lat. of 13 to 21, and they are more thinly scattered over the mountainous countries which extend between that valley and the confines of Tonquin and Kamboja. Lao is governed by four tributary kings. It is more extensive than Siam itself, and said to be equally populous.

The proper seat of the Kambojan nation is the lower portion of the valley of the river of Kamboja and the Peninsula of the same name as far as Athian or King-kao, but they do not occupy the mountainous sea-coast from thence to the head of the gulf. The only portion of Kamboja in the actual possession of the Siamese is the rich province of Bata-bang lying on the western bank of the great river and between the lat of 12 and 13 degrees N; all the rest either forming an integral portion of the Cochin-Chinese empire or being tributary to it.

Of the Pegu territories but a very small portion is in the occupation of the Siamese. The whole number of this race subject to the Siamese may amount to 50,000, and these are to be found adjacent to the Burman province of Martaban.

The Malayan tributaries of Siam extend from the lat. of 7 to between 3 and 4. On the east coast of the Peninsula they consist of the principalities of Patani, Calantan, and Tringanu, and on the western, of Queda and Perak. The whole of these are placed under the immediate superintendance of the governor of Ligor which is the most southerly province of the proper Siamese country. The dependance of these states upon Siam is greater or less in proportion to their vicinity or distance.

The mountain races within the Siamese territory are the Kariang—the Lawa—the Ka and the Chong. These are of little moment except in so far as their localities point out the relative condition of the different portions of the country in respect to barrenness or fertility, barbarism or improvement. The Kariang inhabit the mountains of the N. western frontier as high up as the lat. of 20—the Lawa, a more numerous people, inhabit the same range of mountains further to the south—and the Ka the range of mountains between the vallies of the Menam and Kamboja rivers, where the territories of Lao and Kamboja meet. The proper country of the Chong is the hilly region at the N. east angle of the gulf of Siam from the lat. of about 11 and a half to nearly 13. These are an industrious people and their country is famous for the production of fine cardamums, pepper, and gamboge. It may be remarked that the three first races are also to be found within the Burman territories and specimens of their dialects will be found in the Asiatic researches on the authority of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton.

The general character and aspect of the Siamese territory, like that of the Cochin-Chinese, is determined by the presence or absence of its great rivers of which it possesses two viz. the Menam or proper Siamese river, and the river of Kamboja; more than one half of which flows through it. The Menam is said to have its source in the mountains of Lao. At Chiang-mai in about the lat. of 20 degrees, it is only navigable for small boats. It disembogues itself in the lat. of 13 at the head of the gulf of Siam by three mouths and probably runs a course of about 800 miles including windings. Between it and the river of Kamboja there does not appear to be any connexion as represented by Col. Symes and Dr. Buchanan, nor from the extensive mountainous tract which is known every where to exist between them is such a communication very likely. The valley of the Menam, hemmed in on both sides by ranges of mountains running N. and S. does not any where appear much to exceed 50 miles broad, but its

uninterrupted length is probably little short of 453 miles, which will give an area of above 22,000 square miles of some of the most fertile land in the world.

The portion of the Kambojan river which belongs to Siam is also said to be narrow, but its length appears to exceed 500 miles. With the exception of these two fertile vallies, the rest of the empire, constituting by far the largest portion of it, consists of steril and uncultivated mountains covered over with forests, and many of which abound in gold, tin, and iron.

On the Burman empire we shall speak very shortly as by this time it is probable that there are many others who can speak with more knowledge and authority on the subject. The furthest southern limit of the Burman empire, as already noticed, is 11 N. lat. on the bay of Bengal. Its territories there situated form a narrow strip along the coast, and constitute but a weak and detached portion of their empire. They are inhabited by a peculiar and distinct nation called Meng. They were wrested from the Siamese abot 60 years ago when the Burmans were in the full career of their victories and they have been able to maintain them ever since although with considerable difficulty. These provices are of importance from containing the harbours of Mergui and Tavoy which combine advantages far superior to any other parts in the gulf of Bengal. Mergui was the place delivered over to the French in the reign of Louis the 14th as forming, with the port of Ban-kok in the gulf of Siam, the two acknowledged keys to the Siamese empire.

To the north the Burman frontier scarcely comes lower any where than between the 20th and 21st degrees, and instead of extending, as represented by Col. Symes, to between the 17th and 18th degrees, there is reason to believe that in some situations the Siamese frontier actually approaches to within less than 150 miles of Umerapoora the Burman capital. It is towards the N. and the N. western frontier that the Burman and Siamese forces find constant occupation. The unskilfulness of both parties in the art of war, and the difficulties of the country have, for a great many years, prevented either party from making any progress, and we think the weakness of the Burmans is particularly evinced by their incapacity to extend their conquest in a situation so near to the seat of government.

The Burman empire consists of three principal nations—the proper Burmans—the Peguans—and the Arracanese; of other inferior nations, the Meng—the Cossayiers, and the Assamese, and of several mountain tribes.

A brief comparative view of the extent, strength, and resources of the three powers which divide further India between them will not be destitute of utility. Col. Symes, Mr. Hamilton and other English writers represent the Burman dominions as forming altogether the most extensive native government subject to one authority at present existing in India. Recent French writers express the same opinion of the Cochin-Chinese empire. According to our opinion the Burman empire contains 212,000 square miles; Cochin-China about 93,000 and Siam no less than 258,000. The extent of territory is however by no means a criterion of its value; which in the state of society these nations are in, can only be determined by the amount of it which is fitted to produce abundant harvests of corn with comparatively little labour, or in other words to the extent of the alluvial vallies of the great rivers in proportion to the hilly tracts. In this respect a preference is probably due to Siam which has scarcely at any time been visited by famines, but on the contrary has always been a great exporting country which cannot be asserted of the other two, at least to the same extent. In Cochin-China and the Burman empire the governments, to prevent insurrection, hoard immense quantities of grain to be distributed in the event of famine. The soil and climate of Siam render such a precaution unnecessary.

On the subject of population much exaggeration is admitted to have prevailed. Colonel Symes estimated the population of the Burman empire at seventeen millions. It was afterwards reduced to eight; and a disposition has recently existed to reduce even this number as low as three millions. As late as 1812 a French writer estimated the population of the Cochin-Chinese empire at twenty three millions, but this seems evidently almost exaggerated conjecture; for it would make the population of that country superior in density to that of the more civilized, industrious, and better governed country of China, which is highly improbable. According to a rough estimate of the population of Siam it appears to amount to somewhat mores than 5,000,000. If the Burman empire be equally populous in proportion to its area, it should contain better than 4,000,000. These estimates would scarcely give 20 inhabitants to a square mile which is indeed placing their population upon a very low scale, but making due allowance for the anarchy and misgovernment which prevail, the numerous barbarous tribes

and the great proportion of mountain and forest land within their territories, it is probably not, on the whole, underrated. We are inclined to estimate the density of population in Cochin-China upon a larger scale than in the other two on account of this territory containing a smaller proportion of barbarous tribes or of mountainous country, but more especially on account of the long established industry of the Tonquinese, and the extent and fertility of their subdivision of the empire.

In point of government the three ultra-gangetic powers are not far removed from an equality. Their political institutions are harsh, and arbitrary and it is the very essence of their character to distress and discourage industry instead of cherishing and protecting it. An universal and sweeping military conscription is the great evil which strikes at the roots of production. Accumulated wealth, the result of private industry is unknown in these countries: a few strangers may be said to form the only exception to this general rule, and these who consist of Chinese are nearly confined to Siam. In practice the government of Siam is perhaps entitled to some preference. The ferocious executions and proscriptions which we frequently hear of in Ava have not of late years at least been known of in Siam, and it must also be admitted that the discipline of the bamboo, the favorate instrument of government in Cochin-China is much more rarely had recourse to by the Siamese.

The armies of Ava and Siam are nearly upon an equality, in respect to numbers and discipline. They in fact consist of nothing more or less than an indiscriminate levy of the raw and unwilling peasantry of the country held together by no system of discipline and no motive but the terror of corporal punishments, of executions and of proscriptions. The Siamese, it may here be noticed, have within the last three years received from the English and American not less than 36,000 stand of fire-arms, all of which as they are bought up, are sent to the frontier for the use of the troops engaged with the Burmans. The military force of Cochin-China in point of sufficiency is greatly superior to that of Siam and Ava, and indeed to that of any Asiatic power whatever. There is here an organised standing army of 40,000 men, disciplined and equipped after the European manner; the fortresses are substantially constructed after an European model, and the artillery is numerous and excellent. Even the naval force of Cochin-China is superior to that of the other two states.

These three powers, however, have nothing serious to apprehend from the hostility of one another. At the points where their territories meet mountainous and desert tracts intervene incapable of maintaining large bodies of men, and which according to their tactics form difficult or insurmountable barriers to invasion and conquest. The antipathy or hostility of the different tribes towards each other, and the slavery and oppression to which the conquered party is always subjected form another material obstacle. From the great superiority of the military force of Cochin-China, it might be supposed that this nation would find no great difficulty in effecting the conquest of Siam; but even Cochin-China has not the means of provisioning and transporting an army for a distant expedition. To enable them to maintain military possession of Kamboja and with no other view, the government is at present engaged in a great and expensive undertaking, the cutting of a canal from the great river to the gulf of Siam, a distance which cannot be much less than 50 miles, such is their apprehension even of the navigation round the cape of Kamboja.

In point of natural fertility and resources, we are upon the whole inclined to give a preference to Siam. We have already referred to the subject of corn. Besides the valuable products which are common to Ava and Siam, the latter yields many which are peculiar to itself, and of those a large and effectual production suited by price and quality for exportation—such as tin, iron, sugar, salt, and pepper, besides such minor articles as benzoin, eagle wood, gamboge, cardamums, and sapan wood. It deserves to be noticed that the teak wood of Siam is neither inferior in quality, abundance, or cheapness to that of Pegu. It has always wanted however that which has brought the latter into notice and consequence, the effectual demand created by the neighbouring market of Calcutta.

The foreign trade of the Burman empire is almost exclusively confined to the British territories in India, and rests in a great measure upon the exportation of the single article of teak wood and the demand is in some measure accidental which has of late years arisen in British ports for that commodity. The external trade of Siam is far larger than that of the Burman empire, and has scarcely owed its existence to accidental circumstances, but rather sprung out of the natural resources of the country itself.

In natural resources it appears to us that Cochin-China is in many respects inferior to the

other two empires. It produces indeed gold, silver, cinnamon, and silk which the others do not yield, or at least do not afford in any abundance. It wants however tin, teak wood, pepper, and other valuable commodities. Its central position—its fine navigable rivers—and its numerous and excellent harbours on the other hand give it a great superiority in this respect over Ava and Siam. Notwithstanding this, its external trade is scarcely one half that of the latter country, and depends less upon the suitableness of its productions for exportation, than upon the general taste which prevails amongst its inhabitants for articles of Chinese manufacture.

[*Singapore Chronicle, August* 1824.]

SIAM.

HARBOR OF KO-SI CHANG.

The geographical position of the cluster of islands which form the harbor of Kosi Chang render them of some importance to navigators and particularly to Europeans trading to Siam. Altho' these islands possess a fine and convenient harbor and lie within four hours sail of the mouth of the Siam river they are but little known and there is not even a correct chart of them extant. We have therefore the pleasure of laying before our readers such information regarding them as we have been able to collect.

The group is situated in latitude 13° 12 north and longitude 100° 55' east and about 36 miles from the mouth of the river of Bankok, from which they bear about S. E. The nearest part of the main is the high land of Bampesoi which is only a few miles distant. They are seven or eight in number but with the exception of the two largest, called by the Siamese Kosi Chang and Ko Cram, they are small and unimportant.

Kosi Chang the largest of the cluster is about seven miles long and three broad and is composed of hills of considerable height, clothed to the water's edge with trees. The varieties of wood are numerous and some of the descriptions, such as maple and, sisso, are well suited for fine work. The trees are not, however, found of sufficient height or dimensions for ship's masts or yards. On this island there is no cultivation, except a small spot which is inhabited by a solitary Chinese. Ko Cram is about one fourth the size of the large island and has a small village on one end of it occupied by Siamese fishermen, by whose industry a considerable portion of the island has been cleared of wood and brought into cultivation, and produces abundance of maize, and such vegetables as are common on the continent.

These islands are famous for some rare and beautiful varieties of the wild pigeon. The most remarkable are a large white species with the tips of the wings and tail black, found on most of the islands in the gulf, but unknown on the continent; a beautiful brown and purple colored description which is very rare and one or two varieties of the small green pigeon. There is a large root found close to the sea on the small islands which appears to be a new species in the list of plants. In appearance it has a close resemblance to the *dioscorea bulbifera* or common yam, but it has little or no taste and grows to an enormous size. We have seen a specimen of this root which measured 10 feet in circumference and weighed 474 lbs. The natives use it as a medicine for which purpose it is prepared by cutting it into thin slices and drying it in the sun when it is pounded or ground down into a powder of a light brown color. This powder is administered in cases of fever, ague &c. Land crabs are numerous in several spots throughout the islands and are eaten by the natives.

The Cochin-Chinese who visit Kosi Chang on their voyages to Siam, have erected a temple on the large island. This is a small white building and stands conspicuous on an eminence at the S. W. end. Their traders touch here regularly for supplies of water and fire wood. The latter of these articles is easily procured and is taken away in large quantities by them on their return to Cochin-China in some parts of which country, wood is a scarce article.

The shores afford the edible bird's nests, so much in request amongst the Chinese, but they are of inferior quality probably owing to their being permitted to remain on the rocks from season to season. Rock oysters are also very abundant, and a few sea slug, or beche de mer are found, but not in sufficient quantity to render them worth collecting. Stone ballast for the use of ships is obtained with ease and without danger to the boats.

The harbour which is formed by the two large islands is well sheltered, and affords anchorage for almost any number of vessels and protection from the wind and sea in every direction, except to the northward; but from this quarter the sea cannot affect it much, on account of its vicinity to the shoals at the head of the gulf. The best entrance is from this quarter, but there is also a passage to the southward between the islands. The holding ground is tolerably good, but it will always be necessary for ships to ride with chain cables owing to the roughness of the bottom which is in many parts covered with stones. The rise and fall of water is considerable, being about ten feet at spring tides and the tide runs strong through the harbour. On the S. W. end of the large island there is a fine stream of fresh water at which a hundred casks may be filled in one day. The stream issues from the hill and escapes to the sea in a small sandy bay, finding its way under the bank of sand which lines the beach. The Cochin-Chinese temple already mentioned is erected on the hill from which the stream flows.

In Hamilton's account of Siam this cluster is called "The Dutch islands" from the circumstance of its having been usual for the ships of that nation to frequent them in the early period of their commerce with Siam. "He says that it was the custom for large ships to wait here "for cargoes from Siam." At present all vessels above 200 tons burthen which trade to Siam lie off the bar in an open and much exposed roadstead and at a distance of 16 miles from the mouth of the river until their cargoes are brought out to them in the native lighters or junks. The detention which vessels meet with in obtaining cargoes renders their stay in this situation expensive and inconvenient if not even dangerous. They have no means of procuring water, wood or ballast, but from Bankok and this is attended with trouble and expense. The whole of these articles can be obtained with the utmost facility at Kosi Chang where a vessel lies in a safe harbour in which her cargo can be taken on board at any time. This is not the case at the other anchorage where delay is often occasioned by the roughness of the weather. As a station for an enemy meditating hostile measures against Siam, no place can be better adapted than this harbor. A very small fleet in possession of these islands would effectually blockade the port of Bankok, at which nearly the whole trade of the Siamese empire is concentrated; and thus dictate terms to the monarch of Siam, without further exertion than the seizure and detention of the numerous junks which trade to Bankok from various quarters. [*Singapore Chronicle, March* 16. 1826.]

THE MODERN CAPITAL OF SIAM.

Bankok, the modern capital of Siam since the government was driven from Yuthia by the Burmans in the year 1767, is about 27 miles from the mouth of the river. Its latitude, by several observations of the stars, is 13° 58'. 30" north, and its longitude by one eclipse of the first satellite of Jupiter, agreeing with a good chronometer, 100° 34' east from Greenwich. The town and population is situated on both banks of the river, but by far the largest part on the left bank. Here is also situated and immediately on the banks of the river the fortification enclosing the palace and other public buildings, on the spot which was the seat of the French fortress under Louis the 14th about the close of the 17th century. This fortification is a parallelogram of great extent, of which the longest side follows the course of the canal. It is composed of a low wall of brick and mortar with a few bastions on which no cannon are mounted, altho' there are many in the enclosure. A canal navigable for boats even during the ebb-tide surrounds it in every direction. As a place of strength it is undeserving of any notice, as it would be escaladed by European troops in a few minutes, or destroyed by the fire from shipping without the smallest difficulty. The buildings of Bankok, besides the palace and principal structures within it, consist of thatched huts, many of them raised on posts within the water, with a great number of temples interspersed conspicuous for their gilding and their tall spires; besides these there are a great many floating houses, generally neat Chinese shops moored along the river side, outside the walls, and a good number of the population live permanently in boats where they have their shops and property. We have heard the population rated as high as 150,000, but think this must be a great exaggeration.* The place is active and stirring, and must contain a very considerable number of inhabitants, nearly one half of whom are said

* Note.—If this statement is intended for those within the walls, it is about four times too large—if including those without—it is nearly four times too small.

to be Chinese. Bankok and its neighbourhood are intersected in a hundred directions by rivers, creeks, and canals, and the country so closely planted with fruit trees as to give it the appearance of a continued wood. Communication is commonly by water, but there are also foot-paths through the town, and one good street or road;—but one only.

The Menam at its mouth is about a mile wide; two miles up about 1600 yardss and at the capital not less than 1000 yds. Here nothing can be more excellent and commodious than its navigation, destitute of sand banks, and having seldom less than seven fathoms water from one shore to another, so that large vessels may be moved along its banks with their yards hanging over the shore.

Bankok is one of the largest native trading cities in Asia, and from March to June the river is crowded with junks not less than 100 of which of all sorts and descriptions, many of them of great size, trade to various ports of China and from 50 to 60 to the various ports of the Malayan archipelago. The internal trade is also considerable by the river, its branches and the various creeks and canals which intersect the valley of the Menam in many directions communicating with the capital. These are crowded with boats conveying salt, cotton, pepper, sugar, and other articles, and with great rafts of teak, sapan, and rose wood.

The climate of Bankok is salubrious, altho' in the summer and autumn months the thermometer rises to 96°. The winter is mild and agreeable, with the thermometer usually at 72. The comforts and necessaries of an Asiatic life are as easily attainable at Bankok as in any country in the east. Rice is wonderfully cheap, and fish, poultry, and pork plentiful and the two last of excellent quality. The fruits are more various, abundant and excellent than in any country in the east, for here are united those of China—of western Asia—of the Indian islands and of tropical America, such as the lichi—the orange—the mangoe—the mangusteen—the durian, and the pine-apple. Even an European might put up with such a country, but for a few material drawbacks, as for example no roads, or carriages—swarms of musquitoes, and the ugly spectacle of a despotic government with its long train of evils and inconveniences.

[*Singapore Chronicle, March 3rd.* 1825.]

NOTES ON SIAM; TAKEN IN 1833.

In the latter part of the year 1827, or beginning of 1828, some misunderstanding arose between the Siamese government and the prince of Laos, Chow Vun Chan.* The Siamese sent an army to destroy this chief and his country, which army was under the command of the late Wangno, and the first minister, Chow Phya Bodin de Cha. The official title of the first minister was formerly Chackree, but after the death of the old Chackree, (who was under the royal displeasure when he died,) the king, on appointing Chow Khun Metap to be first minister, ordered the title of Chackree to be annulled, and the above one to be used in its stead.

The expedition against Laos was successful. As usual in Siamese warfare, they laid waste the country, plundered the inhabitants, brought them to Bankok, sold and gave them away, as slaves. The prince Vun Chow and family made their escape into Cochin-China; but instead of meeting with a friendly reception, they was seized by the king of that country, and delivered as prisoners to the Siamese. The king arrived in Bankok about the latter end of 1828, and underwent there the greatest cruelties barbarism could invent. He was confined in a large iron cage, exposed to a burning sun, and obliged to proclaim to every one that, the king of Siamese was great and merciful; that he himself had committed a great error, and deserved his present punishment. In this cage were placed with the prisoner, a large mortar to pound him in, a large boiler to boil him in, a hook to hang him by, and a sword to decapitate him; also a sharp-pointed spike for him to sit on. His children were sometimes put in along with him. He was a mild respectable-looking, old, grey-headed man, and did not live long to gratify his tormentors, death having put an end to his sufferings. His body was taken and hung in chains on the bank of the river about two or three miles below Bankok. The conditions on which the Cochin-Chinese gave up Chow Vun Chan were that, the King of Siam would appoint a new prince to govern the Laos country, who should be a person approved of

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Notes By A Friend, in 1835.

* Vun should be We-ung—Chow, lord or governor—We-ung, country (a Laos word)—Chan, Laos or Chan—in other words, the Laos king.

by the Cochin-Chinese; and that the court of Siam should deliver up the persons belonging to the Siamese army who attacked and killed some Cochin Chinese during the Laos war. Several ambassadors have been sent to claim the fulfilment of those promises, but nothing as yet has been accomplished. At present, (1833,) there is an ambassador from Cochin-China demanding in the strongest terms the appointment of a king over the Laos country, and also some remuneration for the death of the Cochin-Chinese. The king of Siam and his court wish to put off this ambassador, as they have done others, with some slight excuses, but he will not receive the king of Siam's letter to the king of Cochin-China, insisting that the former must positively state in the letter whether he intends to appoint a king over Laos or not, and whether any measures will be taken regarding the death of the murdered Cochin-Chinese. The king of Siam says he has not yet found a proper person to appoint to so responsible an office; but he thinks the Cochin-Chinese king has no right to concern himself whether a person is appointed or not. The embassy still remains at Bankok, the ambassador saying that he dare not return to Cochin-China until this affair is settled.

On the receipt of the dispatches by the embassy, the king of Siam got dreadfully alarmed and sent off Chou Phya Budin de Cha with a large force to the frontiers of Cochin China. He had arrived at Cambodia, one part of which belongs to Siam and the other is tributary both to Cochin-China and Siam. Both nations claim it as their own.

When the Cochin-Chinese government became aware of the movements of the Siamese general, they prevented all supplies being sent or sold to the Siamese army, and prohibited the Cambodians from having any intercourse with them whatever. This was an unexpected step, and put the Siamese on rather short allowances; their rice and salt were cut off, and what is worse still, their *mak lo plu*, (betel.) A Siamese army might do very well without muskets, swords or ammunition, but it is morally impossible that they can dispense with their *kin mak*.

Letters arrived from Chou Phya Metap or Budin de Cha, two days prior to the departure of the writer from Bankok, which (was on the 20th of April 1833) informing the king of all that had taken place; and requesting of him a reinforcement of at least ten thousand men. He wished also an additional number of experienced officers to be sent, to assist him with advice. On the arrival of that force his intention is to subdue all Cambodia to Siamese authority and, if need be, to march into Cochin-China. When these despatches were read to the king, he ordered the Praklang to write to the general informing him that it was not convenient then to send more men, as the people, at that season, were employed in planting paddy and if he were to send ten thousand away before that necessary work was done, rice would become dear; and war in the country, and rice high in price would never answer. The general was also desired to remain where he was, and keep himself quiet until the rainy season was over, when the king would send more than the number of men required. Such is the present state of Siam, as regards Laos and Cochin-China.* The Siamese deserve a heavy punishment for their barbarity to Chow Vun Chan and the poor Malays, whose "ghosts walk unrevenged" amongst them.

This year, at the soncran or new year, on opening the book of fate, to see whether it was to be a lucky or unlucky year, the omen is said to have been unpropitious and warlike. The picture was an elephant pulling up a young tree, a prince and two drivers on his back the drivers pricking the elephant with their hooks &c.

† The *Quedah* war is the next political event that disturbed the royal breast of his golden-footed Majesty. This event did not give the Siamese much trouble; they were much more fearful of the English assisting the Malays, than they were of the Malays themselves. On the

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* At the close of the rainy season that year, a force, said to amount to 50,000 men, was dispatched to the theatre of war principally under the Praklang, but after plundering some forsaken villages, and securing, 1 or 2 thousand prisoners mainly old men, women and children they deemed it best to return home.—The Praklang made an attempt indeed to reach Saigon but tho' he had 30,000 men, when he met 3,000 Cochin-Chinese, he fled for his life.—Pra Mee Tap continued thro' the season in the Cambojan country making an occasional sally for plunder, and having obtained a few thousand captives, he sent them under a guard overland to Bankok. By the way, the Cambojans showed but little anxiety for the privileges of such an emigration, rose, slew all their guard and returned quietly home.—The Siamese generalissimo still continues (Jany 1835) in Camboja, and it is said is sometimes pretty sorely pressed to keep himself comfortable.

On the Pra Klang's return, the whole country was put in requisition for building war-boats and erecting forts:—In November the Pra Klang left Bankok again with 3 or 4 thousand men to fortify Chantibond.

† Quedah—should have preceded the account of Cochin-China.

arrival of the writer in Siam in September 1831, the Praklang was very anxious to know if the English would assist the Malays or not. He was told it was quite evident the English were assisting the Siamese, having sent ships of war to blockade the Quedah river. He then asked what was the general opinion on the war, who, did the English at Singapore say, would gain the day. The writer said that to judge from what had already taken place, the Malays would conquer, unless more men were sent from Bankok. This the Praklang answered would not be done, as the king had ordered the rajah of *Ligor* to take the country, and the latter had said he was able enough to accomplish that without any assistance from Siam, and if he did not do all he professed, the king would be much displeased, and perhaps disgrace him.

About this time also, an insurrection broke out at *Patani, Jella* and *Jarim*, when the Siamese settlement of *Singora* * was attacked. Letters arrived from the governor of *Singora* demanding assistance and great preparations were made for his defence. It was said that 40 war-boats and 12,000 men under three phyas were sent to *Singora*. This is the number given out, but the actual force sent was much less. Previous to this the king advanced the Praklang to the rank and title of Chou phya kalahom.† This elevation did not much please the Praklang. He was greatly afraid of losing his more lucrative situation of Praklang, and when the king offered him this new dignity he said he could not leave the office of Praklang, because the day his father became Kalahom, he died, and he was certain the same fate awaited him. The king, to please his favourite, said he might continue to be Praklang, and become Kalahom also, which was just the very thing the sly fox wanted. This is the first instance of an occurrence of that nature happening in Siam.

The Malayan states of *Patani, Calantan* and the other smaller states of *Jella* and *Jarim* began to assume a hostile appearance towards Siam, and refused to be taxed and have their hands written on—(all the people belonging to the king of Siam are marked on the wrist)—besides having the mark of slavery put on their arms. The officer, who collected the tax, (a phra of the second class,) by way of remunerating himself for his trouble, demanded three ticals a head. This was more than the poor people could pay, and those who could not pay, he flogged whether men, women or children. From this unauthorised act of oppression and cruelty arose the disturbance. When the second king heard of the misconduct of his officer, he ordered him to be seized and beheaded, without trial. The Praklang as Kalahom was ordered to proceed immediately to *Singora* and from thence to *Patani*, in order to put an end at once to the disturbance in that quarter. He sailed from Bankok on the 17th of March 1832, in a war-boat with a fine gilt stern and gilt head, accompanied by about 18 more war-boats containing altogether about 3,000 men. The Praklang as Kalahom was invested with royal insignia in the shape of a pyramidical cap or crown, and went down the river in great state, with bands of music playing &c. His boat was pretty well crowded, having four of his wives, two of his sons, and his brother Pomat, with their servants and baggage; besides as many men, or, as they called them, soldiers, as the vessel could hold. They had a very long passage along the coast, the old Praklang being such a coward that they were obliged to keep in shore all the way and anchor every night, so that it took 46 days from Bankok to reach *Singora*. On the Praklang's arrival there, he found the Malays had been already dispersed, and he had nothing left to perform, but to plunder the people, to do which, it may be certain, he did not lose so good an opportunity as then presented itself. The rajah of *Patani* was reported to have fled to *Calantan*; but the Praklang sent orders to the rajah of that place to deliver him up, promising that he should not be hurt. The rajah of *Calantan* caught and sent the rajah of *Patani* to the Praklang, who treated him well at first. By this time the Praklang had removed his head quarters to *Patani*, and employed his people in plundering in every direction. Not content with taking whatever the poor people possessed, they caught every person they could find, young and old, sick and healthy, promiscuously; and not satisfied with capturing the unfortunate inhabitants of *Patani, Jella* and *Jarim*, they also carried off all the cattle, and burnt and cut down all the fruit trees that came in their way. The Praklang wrote several times to the rajah of *Calantan*, to come and visit him, but the latter always sent an excuse, saying he was very old, (which is the case.) After much negociation, the poor old man was obliged to pay, (notwithstanding his having delivered up the rajah of

* Singora—otherwise Songora, called by the Siamese *Songklah*.
† Chow Phya Kallahom—signifies "commander in chief."

Patani,) to the king of Siam 30,000 Spanish dollars and ten catties of gold-dust; and to the Praklang, *little by little.* as much more as he could collect in order to be allowed to retain possession of the country! It is pretty certain, from the well-known character of the Praklang, that if he obtained one dollar for the king he secured three for himself.

About the end of August, the Malays being *quiet*, and every thing settled to the satisfaction of the Praklang, he proposed returning to Bankok with his principal spoils, viz: from four to five thousand prisoners, or slaves. Those miserable, wretched creatures were forced on board the small junks and war-boats, and were crowded together as thickly as they could be stowed, without any room being left for them to move. When they arrived at Bankok and were landed on the banks of the river the sight they presented was most miserable, and the stench from their persons and the vessels, dreadful. One fourth were covered with the small pox. They were all placed, or huddled together, in one side of the building called the British Factory, and there the writer was an eye-witness of such distress and misery as would have rent even a heart of stone. An account of this may be seen in the *Singapore Chronicle* of the 22nd November 1832.*

The Praklang himself arrived on the 20th of September 1832 bringing with him the rajah of *Patani* and his family. The rajah was sent in chains to the king's palace, where he is still kept, and his family were placed in another house with other prisoners of rank. The king was much pleased with all the Praklang had done and rewarded him with a present of 30 catties of silver, or 2,400 ticals,—to purchase playthings with—as the king said—"*sue arie lin.*"† On the arrival of the rajah of *Ligor* a short time after, he also was rewarded with a similar present, and sent back immediately to *Ligor* there to remain until the time arrived for burning the body of the second king, on which occasion he would be expected to attend.

The second king, or Wang Na, had been troubled with dropsy for a long time previous to his death, which took place about the end of April or beginning of May 1832. He died poor, being of a liberal disposition. All he possessed he spent on his officers, and priests, and in building ‡ pagodas. He left several debts unsettled which the king paid off, who also took his officers into the government employ. The office of second king had been generally considered a sinecure though the emoluments attached to it were very considerable, viz: one-third of the revenue of the kingdom, and an allowance from the king of 1500 catties of silver annually to pay his officers. ‖ On the death of the second king, there were three or four expectants, particularly prince Cromma-mon-rak, and several other Com-ma-mons; but the king, to put an end to all their expectations, created a new title namely Crom ma-luang, and invested four of the princes with it. At the same time he raised several of the inferior princes to a higher rank than they held before, thereby doing away with the title of second king altogether.

The body of the second king was kept in state until the beginning of April, this year, when all the grand preparations for burning it were completed. The processions commenced about the first of that month and lasted during six or seven days, when the body was burnt, and most probably his ashes, as usual, have been made into a god.

A painting, descriptive of the procession, could alone enable a person to form any idea of the scene, for no pen could describe it, it being impossible even to imagine names for the figures of the animals, griffins, nondescript monsters &c. which were drawn along on hurdles by large groups of men. The procession was somewhat similar to that which took place at the burning of the late first king, and which is partly described in Finlayson's or Crawfurd's work on Siam. The prince before whom Major Burney's treaty was concluded, Com-ma-Sureen, died several years ago.

AMERICAN TREATY WITH SIAM.

The American sloop-of-war *Peacock*, captain D. Geisinger arrived at the bar about the latter part of February 1833, having on board Edmund Roberts Esq. as envoy from President

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* The letter inserted in the No. of the Chronicle here referred to is a better note than I can write.

† "Sue arie lin"—lin should be len, buy any thing to play with—to amuse yourself.

‡ Pagoda is a word frequently used in this Journal and other writings regarding Siam; but the thing intended by it is very different from what are called Pagodas in Bengal or Burmah. In Siam, it is called a Wat and consists of one, two, or more temples, surrounded by bell houses, open sheds or zayats and priests' dwellings, tanks, flower-gardens, bricks walks &c. with every requisite for the accommodation of from 100 to 500 priests. Of these Bankok and its environs contain from 50 to 100.

‖ A catty of silver is equivalent to 80 ticals, or about 48 dollars.

Jackson to Cochin-China and Siam. Previous to the vessel's arrival in Siam, the embassy had been at one of the out-ports of Cochin-China, but could accomplish nothing. They were however, well received at Siam ; two large war-boats were sent outside the bar to bring Mr. Roberts to Bankok, the *Peacock* being too deep to pass over it. The party that came up consisted of eleven persons : Mr. Roberts, Captain Geisinger, the doctor, Mr. Morrison junior of Canton as private secretary and Chinese translator, two or three lieutenants and the remainder, midshipmen. They occupied one side of the factory built for foreigners. Mr. Roberts had a letter from the President of the United Sates to the king of Siam; it was open, and having no large seal on it, the Siamese could scarcely believe it to be a genuine letter from the President ; but the *Peacock* laying outside the bar with 200 white men on board, was a reality, "and no mistake,"—therefore all must be real.

Mr. Roberts proposed to form a treaty of friendship and commerce, at which the Siamese made no objections ; he endeavoured, however, to make a more advantageous one than the English did, but that, the Siamese said, could not be done ; they would agree to allow the Americans to trade on the same footing as the English, but more could not be granted. After some trouble and delay, a treaty was drawn up, after the Siamese fashion ; but then came the fight for alterations, amendments &c. Mr. Roberts had an audience of his Majesty, and only one. The treaty is written in the Siamese, Chinese and Portuguese languages, and commences in the same style as the English one, with "*Somdet Phra Puttie Chau Yu Hun*" &c., which is translated in the treaty—"the great and magnificent king," instead of the literal godlike titles which are alike applied to their god and their king.* Mr. Roberts was very anxious to obtain the treaty sealed in duplicate, in order to forward one copy to the United States from Batavia or elsewhere, and after having gone to the trouble of drawing three copies the foolish old Praklang could not be induced to sign the duplicate, being fearful, it is presumed, that Mr. Roberts only wanted to sell the duplicate to some other state! so that Mr. R. went away with only one copy sealed. The Praklang was reasoned with, and told that were he to sign a hundred copies, no harm could befall the country, all being of the same tenour and date; but it was of no avail.

The presents given by Mr Roberts did not produce the desired effect, though valuable in themselves. Indeed, to a court like Siam, they were rendered in some sense valueless, through their ignorance. The presents to the king consisted of a pair or two of beautiful watches set with pearls of some value, some silver baskets and abundance of China silks. To the Praklang also, Mr. Roberts gave presents to a good amount, but he did not visit any of the inferior princes. The amount of the presents might be about 2,000 to 2,500 dollars, while the returns consisted of a little sugar, sticlac, pepper, tin, gamboge, benjamin, anguella wood, sapan wood, and inferior cardamons,—the whole of which might be worth 1,000 or 1,500 dollars. The Siamese knew the presents were bought in China, which did not please them much, and it is said, that at one time they were not disposed to accept them. The original presents intended for the Cochin-Chinese and Siamese courts were sent out from America in a separate vessel, but she had not arrived in China ere the *Peacock* left. But this the Siamese would not credit.

Mr. Roberts inserted one article in the treaty to the effect that if a citizen of the United States contracted debts in Siam and was unable to pay them, the creditors were to take whatever he possessed, and then to discharge him;—they are not to detain a citizen in Siam contrary to his inclination,—or something to that effect. This the Siamese agreed to, provided a similar clause was inserted in their favour, and the article, at present, stands thus; 'If a Siamese buy from a citizen of the United States, or owes him money, he must pay the citizen if he possesses the means ; but if he has none, the citizen is to take what he has got, and give him a discharge. The same with respect to the citizen of the United States.'

This is liberty and bankrupt-law with a vengeance. It is to be regretted that such a clause was inserted at all, for, from the manner of transacting commercial business at Bankok, it is almost impossible for the foreign merchant to get into debt with the Siamese.† The for-

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* The literal meaning of the Siamese is "the Lord God Boodha is at the head."

† The force of these remarks on the American treaty, I am unable to perceive. If the foreign creditor is allowed to take all his debtor possesses what *could* he do more ? He might indeed imprison him, but that would not pay the debt, he might sell him for a slave, but that would only pay a small portion, and would also be countenancing a system from which all honorable minds, in the present enlightened age, must revolt. I would fain know moreover, wherein it differs from the English treaty (see Art. VI.) with Siam.

mer is obliged to sell his goods, generally on a credit;—but not so the Siamese merchant, his produce. If therefore a Siamese dealer be inclined to take advantage of the above article, he may purchase goods from a foreign merchant, pay his former debts, and *if* there be any residue, hand it over to the merchant, who by the treaty is bound to give him a discharge! That was explained to Mr. Roberts, and when too late he endeavoured to cancel the clause altogether; but the Siamese would not *yom*—(consent.) Mr. Roberts consoled himself, however, by saying that another article, inserted in the treaty counteracts the above, which states that the Americans are to enjoy the same privileges as are granted to the most favoured nations, and that if a consul be allowed to reside at Bankok, from any European nation, excepting the Portuguese, the Americans will be permitted to have one also.

Mr. Roberts was desirous of inserting in the treaty a clause by which liberty should be granted to send a consul; but the Praklang would not consent, though the king is said to have told him to agree to it. The Praklang informed Mr. Roberts that captain Burney had asked permission for an English consul to reside at Bankok, but was refused. How far the signification of the phrase "most favoured nations"—extends, is a matter of enquiry; it may be applicable only with regard to any alteration in duties, though the article regarding debts would still continue in effect.

The *Peacock* left the bar of Siam for Singapore, on the 6th of April, after having remained upwards of forty days.

The Portuguese consul, Mr. Carlos Manuel de Silveira, having remained in Siam for several years, proceeded to Goa in 1830, to settle some affairs, when it was decided that he was to return to Siam, as consul. He went to Macao, and from thence was sent to Bankok in a small Portuguese brig. He arrived in April 1831, but the Praklang on hearing of his arrival, was much displeased, Mr. Carlos having previously rendered himself somewhat obnoxious to the Siamese, merely, it is thought, because he would not give up a piece of ground, at present occupied by the Portuguese, which the Praklang is anxious to obtain. The Praklang said at first he would not permit Mr. Carlos to remain, nor would he receive the presents brought from the governors of Goa and Macao; but he soon got over his scruples, by saying that though Mr. Carlos may be bad, the governors of Goa and Macao were very good men, and so, he *condescended* to receive the presents. The next step for Mr. Carlos was to get an audience of the king, which, after some delay, he obtained. His majesty asked him the cause of his return, as a Portuguese consul was of no service, that nation having no commerce with Siam whatsoever. For some time, it was the Praklang's intention to send Mr. Carlos away in the same brig he arrived in; that gentleman remained however, and the Siamese government wrote a letter to the governor of Macao stating that if he wished to keep up friendship with Siam, he must recall Mr. Carlos, and send some other person to replace him, making, at the same time, a long childish complaint on the plea above stated. A new consul has been sent since then, who was hourly expected. This will disappoint the Praklang a little, but it is thought he will dismiss this person also very soon. *

Mr. Hunter, an English merchant, occasionally residing at Bankok, was honored with some titles, in 1831. A document under the great seal sets forth his having resided a long time at Siam, and in all his transactions given great satisfaction, never having had any quarrels or disputes, and been useful to the country by bringing cannon, muskets, &c., for its defence; therefore for his said good conduct, the king thinks him a fit person to become a *Kon Nang Mong Thie*,† and confers on him the title of *Luang Awood Wiset, Phra Tate Wanet*. With this title he received a siiver water goglet, a silver tray, and a suit of Siamese costume; and from the second king, a silver tea-pot, and a quantity of fine silk and gold dresses; with an intimation that he was now in the king's favour, and might shortly expect higher honours.

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* That consul (Senr. Marcellino De Araujo Roza) arrived in May 1833 and probably will not be molested by the Siamese till recalled by his own government.

† Mr. H. from a want of familiarity with the written language of Siam, was not very accurate in his pronunciation and his Roman characters therefore express Siamese sounds very imperfectly—*Kon nang mong Thie* would probably be better written thus, *Kun nang mu-ang Thai*; i. e, an officer of the Siamese government. The title *Luang Awoot Wiset, Pra Tate Wanet*, might be translated "Commodore."

The king of Siam is by no means popular in his own country; he is very avaricious, his heart being set on no other object than making money. In one respect only he is liberal, that is, towards his priests and pagodas.* He burdens the poor in order to give to lazy rogues of priests. The price of rice being high since the last inundation, as usual in such cases, the number of priests has increased, and grain is not yet sufficiently cheap to induce these fellows to leave off their affected holy calling, all being clothed and fed by the king and the poor ignorant people.

It will be a fortunate circumstance for the Malayan states of Calantan and Tringanu if his majesty of Siam enters into a war with Cochin-China; otherwise the Siamese government will never remain contented until they have either obtained complete possession of those states, or impoverished them so much that they will not be worth taking. On his way to Siam recently, the writer called on and saw the Rajah of Tringanu, who was desirous that the former would settle at Calantan as a merchant, and as an inducememt, held out the great prospects of making money. He said the Malays would not then be afraid of the Siamese; he was told however, the Siamese could not interfere with either Calantan or Tringanu, but if the two Rajahs were simple enough to pay money when the king or any of his petty officers demanded it, the latter would be fools, were they not to accept what they got by merely asking. A copy of the treaty with Siam translated into the Malayan language, was given to the Rajah which pleased him much. He said his predecessor had obtained a copy, but it was lost in the late revolution. He further hinted he would like if the English would take possession of Calantan.

The writer called also on the Rajah of Calantan; he is a very old man, and much alarmed about the Siamese. He said the latter have taken away, by degrees, all the money and goods he possessed, and are still clamorous for more. At that time there were at Calantan twenty men from the Rajah of Ligor, ordering him to send some offerings to Siam to assist in the ceremony of burning the second king; likewise to send two catties of gold dust, to the Rajah himself as a present. The old man, who is upwards of 90 years of age, seemed to be in a piteous condition, and it is a shameless act of barbarity to trouble him thus in his last days. He would be glad were the English to take possession of his country, and promised to build a house, if one would come and reside at Calantan.

When the writer arrived at Siam he informed the Praklang that this Rajah was very old and could pay no more money. The Praklang, it seems, had likewise sent an order, a short time previously, for the Rajah to work a tin mine, which he heard existed in the state of Calantan, and to send him 300 piculs of tin. The old Rajah was obliged to set to work under the direction of one or two Siamese, and to dig out this supposed tin ore; but it proved to be lead, and only very little of that, as out of one picul of ore they obtained but one dollar weight of pure metal. The writer brought a sample of the lead to the Praklang, and informed him of the trouble the old Rajah had taken, and how poor the Siamese had made him by taking away all his gold and dollars, and how they even wanted more, as if he could make money of stone. The Praklang was somewhat annoyed at these remarks, and said there was abundance of tin in the country, but the Malays were too lazy to work the mines. He asked who wanted more money from Calantan—and was informed that there were twenty men there demanding gold-dust, who had been sent either by himself or the Rajah of Ligor. He then asked why the Rajahs of Calantan and Tringanu had not sent up presents to assist in the burning of the second king; and was told that they were then preparing topes, for that purpose, which were to sail a few days after the writer did. This information pleased both the king and Praklang much.

2. *The Agricultural State of Siam.*

The agricultural state of the country is sadly changed, especially since the great inunda-

* Besides feasts given at his palace, the King makes an annual circuit of *charity!* to the Wats. As all travelling in Siam is by water, he goes of course in boats. A large detachment of men for these occasions is drawn from all parts of the country in November. The scene is preceded by splendid exhibitions of fire works on the river for 3 successive nights, on one of which his Majesty is present to assist in person. On the appointed days, he is seated in a long boat, covered with a canopy of gold cloth and rowed by about one hundred men. His boat is preceded by from 19 to 20 others conveying a body of soldiers, and followed by about 50 more carrying the princes and nobles and rowed by 30 to 70 men each. He visits 2 or 3 wats daily for 15 days,—makes prostrations and presents to the priests; and receives their blessings! The amount given to each is various; sometimes 40 or 50 catties of silver. His Majesty is also engaged in erecting or beautifying several new Wats.

tion in 1831. About the beginning of October that year, the water began to rise higher than usual, and in the middle of the month there were three or four feet of water over the face of the whole country. Several people in the interior lost their lives; whole fields of paddy were swept away; and the sugar-plantations were nearly all destroyed. In this state the country remained for upwards of three months, during which most of the cattle in the interior perished. In the river *Meinam*, there was no visible flood-tide, but the ebb was dreadfully strong, running at the rate of 5 or 6 knots an hour.

The country is now beginning to recover from this calamity, as far as regards rice, sugar and salt; but alas, the fruit trees have been mostly all destroyed; and Siam, from being one of the finest fruit countries in the east, is now the very worst.* There is but *one* durian tree alive in all Siam, and when this sad tale was told to the king, he said that tree should be called the Chow Phya durian. There were a few mangosteens in the market this year, but only a few, and very bad. The mangoe-trees seem to be recovering, and to all appearances, there will be no scarcity of that fruit, when the season arrives. The sugar crop is very short in quantity, but seems superior in quality; of sticlac also, there is a great deficiency, in the market. Owing to the high price of rice for the two last years, the princes, mandarins and great men have employed mostly all their people in planting paddy, and several and extensive fields have lately been cleared and planted, while more are in progress of being cleared. The Government is cutting a canal for the purpose of supplying the fields with water, and to allow of the produce being carried to Bankok by water; so that, in another year, it is expected that rice may be had there for almost nothing.

The Siamese are, in reality, progressing a little towards civilization, and if they could only be induced to believe that Siam is a paltry, insignificant nation, and the people themselves poor ignorant creatures, only a degree above monkies,—something might be made of them; but when, as now, they have an idea that all other nations are only allowed to breathe through the goodness of his Siamese Majesty, and that they surpass all others in general knowledge, it is difficult to convince them of any thing like common sense. Missionaries may labour, perhaps ineffectually, to teach them Christianity, which they say is their duty to do above every thing else; but the establishment of two or three Schools in Siam, not *Missionary Schools*,† would be the greatest blessing that could be conferred on the country. The natives would then learn useful knowledge, and from knowledge would spring Christianity. The Siamese are heathens because they are ignorant; but schools taught by plain, moral men, whose whole exertions should be used in simply instructing the people without aiming at conversion, would ultimately prove the surest means of their becoming Christians.‡

During the last five years, several excellent Protestant Missionaries have visited Siam who are called there "Hunter's Priests." As such gentlemen are seldom long in a place without informing the world what they do, the writer must refer the reader to the journals of the above mentioned. Mr. Abeel's journal has not yet appeared, and it is uncertain whether he will publish it. Both Mr. Tomlin and Mr. Gutzlaff have printed theirs; Mr. Jones having but just arrived, has had no time. If Mr. Abeel publishes,§ it is certain his journal will be worth reading, and quite different from most other publications of that nature—some journals state what the writers wish to take place, or what should have taken place, instead of what has actually taken place.‖

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* In 1834 Rice was *very* cheap and Durians abundant; Mangosteens are still scarce.

† Who will establish them, and support them, and where shall the pattern for them be found? And further yet who will collect the pupils? There is an implied reproach here thrown upon Missionary Schools—which, if it were not offered out of *complaisance* to the *writer's most frequent* associates, and out of *ignorance* of the operations of such institutions, would demand some comment. "The natives would then learn [acquire] useful knowledge and from knowledge would spring Christianity" &c. A beautiful theory! It is a singular fact and deserving of very attentive consideration, that *none understand* how to educate, enlighten, and christianize the heathen so well as those who never attempt it!! Will those who hate fanaticism give us some philosophical solution of this phenomenon?

‡ Preaching the Gospel to the heathen, whenever practicable, is expressedly the primary duty of a Missionary; but teaching youth that most useful of all knowledge,—the knowledge of the true God, and of man as a sinful creature,—forms another imperative duty. Instruction may be reckoned the source of civilization.

Missionary schools, as at present conducted, might probably be rendered more effective, if the teachers did not confine themselves so exclusively to religious instruction.

§ Mr Abeel's Journal of 3 years Residence and Travels in China and the neighbouring countries has since been published in N. York, but no copies have yet reached this country.

‖ We should hope there are few or no Missionaries who for the gratification of a little vanity, or from other unworthy motives, wilfully misrepresent matters connected with their charge. Their zeal, may, at times, lead them to view occurrences and prospects in a more vivid light than others can.—*Editor S. C.*

3. *The Commercial State of Siam.*

The effects of Major Burney's Treaty were at first, very gratifying to the British merchant, as he no longer suffered the great annoyance and delays which formerly he was obliged to submit to from Custom-house officers, weighing clerks, watchmen, and innumerable other nuisances. In a pecuniary point of view, the advantages arising from the change were also great; and altogether, the Treaty appeared to answer the most sanguine expectations. Even yet, were Bengal Government to insist on the articles being strictly fulfilled, it may be made to answer. But, what Major Burney himself anticipated at the time of framing the Treaty is gradually coming to pass; namely, duties being placed on produce coming from the interior, which is contrary to the meaning and spirit of the Treaty. Mr. Hunter, the English merchant before mentioned, has complained to, and reasoned with, the Siamese Government on the subject, but without effect. The officers say the duty is not taken from him, and the king can do as he likes in his own country; but they will not be made to understand that the result is the same, whether the duty be taken from the foreign merchant or the raiser of the produce. Gambouge and several other productions have to pay a heavy duty to the king before they are brought into the market.

In January 1832, Mr. Hunter had a conversation with the Praklang, during which he told the latter that he was about to leave for Singapore, but would return to Bankok in the course of two or three months, when he would bring only a small vessel; and as Siam produce did not then pay well, he would sell his cargo of piece-goods &c. fill up the vessel with the produce of the country, and the balance of the produce take back in dollars or ticals. To this the Praklang made no objection; he said Mr. Hunter might act as he liked, as there was no order against the exportation of ticals, and he could not prevent his taking away as many as he should get. In June the same year, Mr. Hunter chartered the *Elizabeth*, a small Bengal schooner, that carried a large cargo for her tonnage, and put on goods to the value of 40 to 50,000 Spanish Dollars, with which he arrived in Siam about the latter end of June. The vessel was scarcely anchored in the river before Chow Kin Si Pepat, the acting Praklang, called on and informed Mr. Hunter that the King had passed an order prohibiting the exportation of ticals or specie of any sort. This would have been of little consequence but that the principal merchants, at the same time, were convened together, and informed that if they were discovered purchasing goods from the vessel for cash, or paying in specie, they should be fined, flogged, and otherwise punished! The merchants could not comprehend this, and at first thought the acting Praklang wished to buy all the goods himself at a cheap rate. After some time they were allowed to purchase, and to pay what money they owed in dollars, but on such occasions it was necessary to send for a custom-house-Clerk, who noted down the amount paid, and the dollars were then allowed to be exported, but at the exchange of 7 slings to the dollar. When the Praklang returned, Mr. Hunter endeavoured to convince him of the folly of the above proceeding; and by his permission the merchants were allowed to buy and sell pretty freely, but they were always much afraid to pay in ticals, the exportation of which is still prohibited. *

The consequence of this order was a loss to Mr. Hunter of upwards of 20,000 dollars; as at first he could sell nothing, and a vessel laying idle for four months is no trifling charge; and finally in consequence of the interference of the government officers with the merchants, in direct opposition to the treaty, he was obliged to send back to Singapore two-thirds of his whole cargo unsold, consisting of white cotton goods, and beautiful Siam dresses.

It is evident that a new treaty with Siam is required, and the English have a right to insist on one being made, as the first has been broken, and in consideration of their having suppressed the Burmese, and assisted the Siamese in quelling the Malays, (to their own great discredit.) The English have a right to trade with Siam on the same footing as other Indian nations;—the Chinese, Javanese, and even the Portuguese, pay scarcely any duties, and the English, because perhaps, they have befriended the Siamese on several occasions, must pay more than any other nation! Unless they are allowed to trade with Siam on a more moderate scale of duties, they can never compete with the Chinese, the difference being so great in favour of the latter. Suppose for instance, a large Junk purchases goods at Singapore to the amount of 35,300 Spanish dollars and sells them in Siam for ticals 70,400

* Ticals are now exported very freely whether with, or without permission I cannot tell. Every Surat vessel brings away many thousands.

paying for measurement duty, and small presents to government officers..... 400

which leaves, ticals 70,000

She buys 10,000 piculs of sugar, at 7 ticals the pl. ;—sells them at Singapore at 6 Drs. which will amount to 60,000 drs. Deduct the expense of the voyage, and the balance will be the profit.

Now for the English ship :

She lays in a cargo amounting to 35,200 Sp. Drs. which sells in Siam for ticals		70,400
Deduct duty, 1,700 ticals for 4½ fathoms.....	7,650	
Lost by presents	950	
Rent of king's Factory.....	250	8,850

leaving ticals 61,550

which, in purchasing sugar at 7 ticals will only give 8,807 piculs ; and these selling at 6 Drs. will amount only to 52,842 Drs.—whereas the Junk gets 60,000 making a difference of 7,158 dollars in favour of the latter.

Under these apparent disadvantages, it is almost impossible that an English vessel can compete with a Chinese one. But the English have a right to insist on being allowed to trade on the same footing as the Chinese. It would even be advantageous both to the king and country of Siam. Very few English vessels have proceeded to Siam, whether before or since the treaty ; and of these the greater part were freighted or chartered by Mr. Hunter ; but if the enormous duties were taken off or reduced, hundreds, in all probability, would resort to that country.

Even a letter from the English government would gain the desired effect ; by frightening them, in the first place, with having disregarded the treaty, they will be glad to make a new one, in case they get their own heads broken, for breaking the old treaty.

POPULATION OF BANKOK IN 1828.*

Chinese (paying tax) †.....	310,000
Descendants of Chinese	50,000
Cochin Chinese	1 000
Cambojans	2,500
Siamese	8,000
Peguans	5,000
Laos (lately come)	7,000
Do. (old residents)	9,000
Burmans (or Bramas)	2,000
Tavoy	3,000
Malays	3,000
Christians.....	800
	401,300

* This table of the population cannot be relied on, as giving any thing more than a very faint and imperfect view of the inhabitants. The Chinese who pay this triennial tax are those who have emigrated to Siam or their children who retain the Chinese habits and speak the Chinese language. Those children who speak only Siamese (and their number is very great) are marked upon the wrist like the Siamese. The Chinese descendants make at least half as many as the pure Chinese. The wives of the Chinese are Siamese, Peguans, Malays, Cambojans, and Burmese and all speak the Siamese language. The children pay no tax till 17 or 18 years of age—nor do the women ever pay any capitation tax. If any considerable portion of Chinese are married, and it would seem that a great proportion of them are, the population of the other classes is much greater than is here stated. The Cochin Chinese are stated at 1,000 ; more than two thousand arrived at Bankok in 1834. The priests are estimated at 20,000 by Mr. Hunter. Tho' this estimate is probably beyond the truth—they may safely be reckoned at 15,000 ; deducting 1,000 for other races, 14 000 would remain as Siamese priests—and yet the number of priests will not equal the number of male Siamese who are not in the priesthood—allowing it however to be equal—the male Siamese would be 28,000—Females and children would swell the number to 60 or 70,000 at the least. The Peguans who are estimated at 5,000, reside at Bankok in but small numbers—Their principal settlements are Pack-làte, 15 miles below Bankok, and Sam kok and the neighbouring villages 15 or 20 miles above. Their whole number in Siam is about 40,000.

The Burmans and Tavoyers together amount to about 1,000 or 1,200—The Malays to 8 or 10,000.—The *Portuguese descendants* to 5 or 6 hundred and the *Christians* about a dozen.—You see I deny the name Christian to some who are very fond of claiming it. I do it on the same principle that I could not call a "pick pocket" a "gentleman"

† A poll tax amounting to about 3 dollars is levied upon ever Chinaman on first entering the country and re-collected triennially. This secures to them the privilege of exercising any craft, or following any trade they please, and exempts them from the half yearly servitude required by the king from every other oriental stranger resident in Siam.—*Tomlin's Journal.*

It is customary on the arrival of a vessel, for the captain or agent to send samples of all the different sorts of goods on board, with a memorandum of the quantity of each, for the inspection of the king; and none will venture to purchase goods until they have been assured the king does not require them. Formerly samples were sent to the second king also.

The writer witnessed once a novel mode of discovering theft. A person had been robbed of two small bars of gold, and as soon as the loss was ascertained, all those who, in any way, had access to the chest in which they were kept, were brought together, and a person dispatched for a conjuror, who arrived, bringing with him a quantity of dried clay, which had a metallic appearance outside, and formed into small square rods about 6 or 7 inches long, and of the size of a person's little finger. The conjuror asked the supposed delinquents severally if they knew any thing of the lost gold, and they, of course, denied having seen it. He then lighted a small wax candle, stuck a tical on two sides of it, which he got from the owner of the gold, and made a short prayer or conjuration;—he then took up a piece of the dried clay, lifted it very ceremoniously three times above his head, and measuring by his little finger, broke it into pieces of about 1½ inches long; and gave each of the suspected persons three of them to chew. Each, anxious to prove his or her innocence, eat or rather chewed as fast as possible, and after the clay was well masticated, and the person able to spit it out, he or she was dismissed as innocent. It was rather ludicrous to see about a dozen persons of both sexes, with their mouths full of blue clay, and every now and then, trying to spit. At length, after 10 minutes perhaps, they all succeeded in spitting out the clay, with the exception of one poor little girl of about 15 years of age, who could not get her clay sufficiently moist to spare a spittle, and was consequently pronounced the thief. The girl declared her innocence but all to no purpose. The conjuror walked off with his candle and the 2 ticals, leaving the little girl in tears. Such is the prejudice in favour of this ridiculous ordeal that on the bare proof of clay-eating, persons are often flogged and put in irons, as thieves. In this case, the girl was only threatened with such a punishment.

The Piece-good Market, &c.

Sales are made chiefly to old women, who are the principal dealers. It is not so advantageous for the foreign merchant to receive payment in dollars as in ticals, as goods may be purchased at Singapore, payable in ticals at 60 to 61½ cents of a Spanish dollar, whereas by weight for weight, they will only be 57 to 58 cents, which makes a considerable difference in a large sum.

The market, this season, (July 1832) has been much overstocked with all kinds of British piece-goods, particularly Siam dresses; as also with cotton twist. When not so, long-cloths will always find a good sale, at a considerable advance on the price at Singapore. Cloths of all sorts, are not valued so much on account of quality, as of breadth and length;—broad-cloths, therefore, answer best. If goods, particularly white goods, are one or two inches too narrow it will at once make a difference of nearly 50 per cent. No white cottons for this market, should be under two cubits, otherwise they are too narrow for priest's dresses, for which the white goods are principally used.

Cotton-twist is daily getting into more use. Low numbers as from 76 to 30, are generally the favourites. The article being now so cheap, the women find it not worth their while to continue spinning it, and as they discontinue the manufacture, the consumption of foreign twist will increase. Twist of a very *bright red* colour, (the *maroon* is worth nothing,) sells well, the numbers from 40 to 50. Twenty piculs at a time will suffice. Yellow and green the Siamese can dye themselves; the former from the kelay wood, and the latter from the same, mixed with a little indigo. They can dye red, but the dye is not fast or bright.

Siamese dresses for this market should be packed in cases of, say 20 corges, or 400 dresses, and all small star patterns, on red, blue, and green grounds, with a few chocolate-coloured grounds, if they can be made cheaper than the others. The red grounds *(bright)* should be in the proportion of four to one of the others, in a case of 400 pieces.

Narrow, star-pattern, bright-ground prints called seven-eights, would find a pretty fair market. The patterns must be all star, in the proportion of two pieces red-star pattern, to one of black, or blue-star pattern, in a case of 100 pieces. The same patterns would sell on broader cloth—say 34 to 36 inches wide. A few cases of large-pattern furniture chintz, will generally find a good market as they are used for curtains and screens. Patterns, running up and down, would be preferred.

Woollens answer pretty well in this market, particularly from September to December. Thin, ladies'-cloth pleases most; the Siamese do not like thick heavy cloth, which they call coarse. Red and green are the favourite colours, and a bale of 12 pieces, each 12½ to 18 yards long, should be assorted with 5 of red, 4 of green, 1 of yellow, 1 of light blue and 1 of light purple or violet colour.

Long ells also find a ready market, and should be sent in the proportion of 100 pieces red, to 20 green. The consumption of red is very great, say 1,000 pieces a year. Enquiries have been made for woollens dyed two colours, gray on one side and red on the other. White woollens, rather fine, are also required.

Steel for sale here should be in very small bars, something about the size of nail-iron, which would fetch a much higher price than those of the usual size. The Siamese prefer it packed in tubs to cases, 100 tubs at a time will stock the market.

The teak timber in this country is excellent, very plentiful, and as cheap, if not cheaper than in any other part of India. A strong, large-sized ship, to last for many years, might be built here for a comparatively trifling sum.

Every article of food is generally cheap in Siam.* Fowls may be had at 8 ticals, and ducks 20 ticals the 100.† Salt fish is also very common and cheap. The fresh fish is not considered good; the only kind in general use is a large black fish which is caught in the river in great abundance. Pork is an article of general consumption, there being, it is supposed, not less than 300 large hogs killed daily in Bankok;‡ some are of immense size. Small pigs are very seldom killed. The price of pork by retail is ¾ of a tical per catty. Venison also may be had fresh occasionally, and at all times dried, in which state it is exported to China in great quantities, yearly. Cows are rather scarce, and are seldom killed; but ships may, at times, buy one for 4 or 5 ticals; but they must use the precaution to kill at night, as the Siamese authorities do not permit the operation to be performed with their knowledge.

The king, who is rather unpopular and very covetous, has placed heavy duties on almost every article of food, including fruits; also on boats, houses and lands;—nothing has escaped. He however cannot tax window-glass, there being none in the houses of the poorer Siamese.

On a visit to the Chou Phya Metap or first minister,—(the Praklang is minister for foreign affairs) the writer found him to be rather an intelligent man. He had few or no attendants about him. After some common-place conversation, he enquired about the Nanning war, and was told it was concluded. He was desirous to know if the Burmese had paid all their instalments to the English, and where captain Burney then was. He was told at Amorapoora, but it was expected that he would return to Bengal soon. A strange idea has prevailed amongst the Siamese that major Burney is detained by the king of Ava, as a state prisoner.

In visiting another noble, Chow Fa, (prince of Heaven) the same evening, the writer was entertained with feats of tumbling and fighting. The performance commenced with fellows blowing through long tubes like the trunks of elephants, which made a most deafening noise. This prelude over, about a dozen other men tumbled in, all dressed in different ways, and with a short sword in each hand.

They then summersaulted, fought, and jumped about in all the different attitudes imaginable. Sometimes whilst fighting, they were lying flat on the floor, and turning summersets over each other. At length, another actor entered, armed with a long stick; they all attacked him, and while defending himself against the whole band, which he did very dexterously, he would now jump over their heads;—then pass through between their legs, and at other times, putting his feet on their shoulders, throw a summerset backwards. The tumbling was performed remarkably well; some walked on their hands, others on their elbows; and in fine, they seemed able to put their limbs in any position they pleased. They had an iron frame, with tow wrapped round it, which was set on fire, and they all cast summersets over it. The second act consisted of fighting with fists—but this was more to exhibit their dexterity in tum-

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* i. e. every article which is procurable in Siam. But beef, butter, cheese, and above all, that which is most desirable and important to Europeans and Americans, viz. *bread*, are not at all procurable there.

† The price of fowls and ducks varies greatly.—In January 1835, they were nearly of the same price, viz. 18—20 ticals per 100.

‡ There are 4 days each month, when swine are not allowed to be killed, or pork carried about for sale. These are the Siamese days of worship—1st, 8th, and 23rd days of the month.

bling and jumping, than in hitting real blows.

As a repast after the play, a stewed fowl, and stewed duck were placed on the table, nicely cooked, but without rice, bread, or yams.* The table cloth was most amusing, it being nothing more or less than a piece cut off the end of a roll of coarse Europe carpeting. After the stews were removed, sweetmeats of different kinds, and fruits were brought in, as also tea, and strange to say, some milk to put into it.

This prince, (Chow Fa,) who is one of the royal family, appeared anxious to know how Europeans managed to print, and wished much to be taught the art. He produced a copy of captain Low's "Phra Bat," and pointed out several errors; he says the impression, (type) is too short, and in more than one place the Siamese characters are written wrong.

Chow Fa is likewise very desirous of learning the English language; he speaks it a little, but writes and paints well with the pen. Of this part of his education, he is very proud, and his handy-work may be seen all over his palace. On one side of his punkah is written, or rather printed, "THE HOUSE OF PLEASURE," with his name "T. C. MOMFANOI:" and on every door, he has written something. He has a kind of enclosed pond with about two dozen alligators in it, though not of a large size, which on one occasion, he fed with prawns, for the amusement of the writer. The alligator, in order to eat the prawns, is obliged to turn his head round, and take them up with the side of his mouth. The prince offered three or four of these animals, but the writer declined them, preferring to have a *Khon Paa*, if the prince could obtain one for him;† he said he had seen but one himself, and they were not now to be procured. His description of this curious monster does not vary in any way from the accounts given by many other persons who had seen the one alluded to. The reason given why more have not been brought, was, that the owners of the one mentioned having made some money by it, the king took it into his head that the bringing of this animal into the capital was a bad omen. The persons who brought it were accordingly seized, and at one time it was supposed they would have to suffer death; but they were dismissed with a sound flogging, and the loss of whatever little property they had. What became of the *Khon Paa*, is not known.

From all accounts, this animal is about 5 feet in height, and in appearance something like a man; it walks upright, but has no joints in its knees, or rather has no knees, runs as fast as any horse, and when it falls down is unable to rise without drawing to some tree, when it lifts itself up by means of its hands and arms, which are said to be rather long. The skin of the belly is said to be transparent like glass, or horn, so that its entrails may be distinctly seen.

The Praklang has a pagoda, which consists of a large irregular building, or pile of buildings, enclosed by a handsome, Europe-made, heavy, iron-railing with fine carriage-gates, having large cast-iron posts, and side gates. No care, however, is taken of the iron work, and it has not even been once painted. The front view consists of a spire or dome, about 40 or 50 feet high; behind are three temples, one of which on the right hand, is finished. The walls of the other two are standing, but they are not yet roofed. The finished temple is tastefully fitted up, the floor being laid with marble slabs, and the walls are painted so as to have the appearance of being papered. The pillars supporting the roof, which run through the temple are likewise painted. From the roof, two small cast-glass chandeliers are hung as also several globe lamps; and the side of the temple is ornamented, here and there, with gilt-framed looking-glasses of German and American make. At the upper end is a gilt figure of Buddah

* The prince has since made very evident advances towards the habits of civilized life. His progress in a knowledge of English is very commendable.—His table and furniture would be no reproach to any European.—Astral and globular lamps—wall shades—European chairs, portable writing desks, pictures in gilt frames, bureaus, sideboards, &c. remind one that much has been done.—There are other things, indeed, which show that much remains to be done. But his circumstances are very different from what they would be, if placed where the conveniences of civilized life were more easily procurable.—He has lately been appointed "Inspector of the national artillery"—and wishes to equip himself with appropriate insignia.—He has accordingly sent for "a military coat, cap, boots, sword, belt, gloves," &c. — and should he succeed to the throne, as it is most likely he will, he will doubtless make many innovations.

In addition to Chow Fa--- there are a few others, persons of rank and much intelligence, who are rapidly rising above their countrymen---as is shewn by their attention to the English language---their fondness for European articles and their adoption of some European customs in their families.

† *Khon Paa* is the *Orang hutan*, which, as few of the natives ever saw it, they describe with considerable exaggeration.

sitting with his legs across, and of a size twice that of an ordinary man. The image is elevated on a pedestal built 8 or 10 feet high, richly gilt, and stuck all over with variegated glass, which in a dull light, looks well. At the near end is an eight-day clock, in a neat stand hung on the wall. The stand is shaped like the regent's feathers, and is London-made, but gilt in Siam. Round the temple, about 10 feet distant, is a wall of 4 feet high, the middle of which is adorned with a row of plain delf plates, Spode and Bronsley's patterns, stuck as close to each other as possible; they are let into the plaster on the wall so that the cement is even with the edge of the plate. The appearance is not bad. The spaces between the windows are done in the same way, but they do not produce the same effect.

In the middle temple is a large image, raised on a solid brick pedestal of about 20 or 25 feet high. This monstrous idol is of real copper, but hollow inside; he is placed in a sitting posture, and from appearance seems to measure twenty to twenty-five feet, from the seat to the crown of the head; being every way large in proportion. This god was brought from the old city about 10 years ago, and for him, the Praklang commenced these extensive edifices, which, in all probability, will take ten years more to complete. The head of the image did not give satisfaction at first, and was re-made several times until a perfect one was cast.

The priests' houses, about 50 or 60 in number, are snug little places, built of brick and lime, and tiled over. They form a kind of square behind the temple; some are on one side. The Praklang has about 60 or 70 priests attached to his Pagoda, besides occasionally a number of young men, as all Siamese of any pretence to rank must be priests for 3 months. This probation they generally undertake when they are about 20 or 21 years of age; and during those three months they are debarred all intercourse with their families. The period over, they return to their houses, and are afterwards considered men.

The Praklang's brother, Pi See Pe Pat, is also building a pagoda, which is nearly finished. It will be much neater than the Praklang's. His son has but just commenced his three months as priest, and a grand ceremony is carrying on at the father's palace, investing him with the yellow robes. Several other young men of rank, and some young princes are also taking their three months' spell. They have already commenced going about from house to house, begging for fish, rice or any thing the people wish to bestow. It is thus the priests live, wholly on the bounty of the public. It is astonishing to see the multitude of them moving about in the morning, both by land and water, with their alms-pots slung over their shoulders, and mostly all sturdy able bodied men. Their number is computed to be about 20,000, in Bankok alone. They are a very oppressive burden to the people, the more so as the priests are likewise clothed by the public, and their dress is rather expensive. Any one that chooses can become a priest, and numbers do so, either from laziness or to avoid punishment for some fault committed. An instance occurred of a caffre servant belonging to the Praklang (formerly employed in an American ship,) who, having done something wrong one day, was threatened with punishment. Blackie to save his skin, turns priest, and the next time he met the Praklang, the latter was obliged to salaam to him;—such is the influence of priesthood in Siam. A person can drop his priesthood at will, but if afterwards he re-enters the office, he must remain a priest for life.

The following account of an audience with his majesty of Siam may be interesting. The day appointed having arrived, the writer, accompanied by captain Norris of the *Elizabeth*, (schooner,) proceeded at half past eight A. M. to the house of the Port captain. (a Portuguese descendant,) who was to act as escort. It was nine before they left the house, as the Port-captain, (who speaks a little English) "got put on fine clothes a little." He came dressed in red silk trowsers; white satin waistcoat, gaudily sewed with gold lace and spangles in front; a red, silk, large-gold flowered, old fashioned coat, rather ancient;—a tolerably clean shirt, and black stock, but no shoes, stockings or hat. Of course, he thought himself no "small drink."

Having arrived a little above the palace, the party were received by Radsethie, an officer of the household, and joined by the naquodahs of the ships *Hind*, and *Hamoody*, who were also proceeding to the audience. They were not taken in a straight direction to the palace, but by a circuitous way through narrow, dirty streets, until at length they came to a large

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* The whole number of priests in the country cannot be accurately ascertained;—but after many inquiries, it is deemed safe to estimate them at 100,000. As all these are furnished with costly dwellings, and much more expensive food and apparel than any other class of people, (a few of the nobles excepted,) the aggregate amount furnished for their support, while they do nothing to benefit the state, is enormous, and may furnish some data to determine whether heathenism, or Christianity is most burdensome to a country,

shed or room, outside the inner palace-wall, where they were requested to sit down and arrange the presents intended for the king. The writer, having only 20 pieces jaconets, 5 pieces printed muslins, 10 pieces flowered muslins, (besides five anchors not brought,) was soon prepared; but the two naquodahs required some time, they having brought a great variety of things, such as gold-cloth of different fabrics, gold-lace, dates, rose-water, chintzes, gurrahs, goglets &c &c. Here they were joined by the acting Praklang, and Phya Chulia, who took a list of the presents, to be read to the king. The presents were then sent, on trays, into the audience-hall. The party had to wait in the shed for upwards of an hour. On each side were large sheds, some covering slabs of stone, and others heaps of dismounted cannon. A shed behind the one the party were waiting in contained a great number of convicts polishing stones. Some were in double-irons; others joined by the neck in pairs, rubbing away at the stones, and singing a dismal-sounding song.

The party, at length, were ordered into the presence of his majesty. Arriving at the door of the hall, there is, inside about two feet, a China painted glass-screen, past which one person only, at a time can pass, the screen preventing persons outside from seeing the king. When Radsethie, the port captain and others, arrived at the door, they, as is usual with all natives, went down on their knees, made three salaams outside, and then crept in on their knees, and elbows or hands. When they arrive in the presence of his majesty they join their hands, and make three grand salaams, nearly touching the floor with their foreheads, each time.

The writer walked in bolt upright, made his Majesty a bow after the European fashion, and stepping about five feet in advance of the screen, sat down on the floor with his feet placed behind him; he then joined his hands together, held them up before his face, and gave them three shakes in the air by way of salaam. This done, and Phya Chulia having read a list of his presents, he was obliged to lift up his hands again and give another shake, in doing which he was nearly measuring the floor with his length. The naquodahs remained on their knees and elbows all the time, like the Siamese; they seemed to be in an easy position, sitting on their legs and feet, and leaning on their arms and elbows.

The king enquired, through Phya Chulia, who seemed to act as interpreter, or master of the ceremonies,—the cause of the writer's not having gone to Europe. The answer was that business did not then permit of it. The king next asked if the writer had made much profit in Siam; to which the latter replied that formerly he was doing pretty well, but he had been losing for the two last years. Phya Chulia addressing the writer said he durst not report this answer to the king, and in lieu of it, responded that formerly there was much profit, but now not much. The king remarked that there was not so much to be made now as formerly. His majesty next enquired after "the man with the silver coat"—his name, and where he was;—answer: Morgan; in Europe. He then asked if captain Coffin was returning to Siam, and why the Americans did not come to trade there. The answer was that sugar could now be had cheaper in other countries. Phya Chulia would not give in this reply, but said the writer did not know the cause. His majesty enquired where the Americans went to trade;—answer, all over the world;—he then asked if any more Englishmen were coming to reside in Siam, or if the writer only was permitted to do so. The latter replied that if there were abundance of profit, many would come. This answer was not reported to the king, but in lieu of it, Phya Chulia, as formerly, said, the writer did not know. His majesty next enquired what Europeans thought of Cochin-China, and whether it was a large country; answer—the general opinion is that it is a large country, but not a powerful one. He then asked whether the Cochin Chinese or the Burmese were the stronger nation. Answer—the Burmese—and by inference, the Siamese. The king lastly asked why the English did not trade with Cochin-China, to which the writer replied that he did not know, but he supposed the produce of that country did not answer the English market. The French generally traded there.

The writer and captain Norris being the only two persons sitting upright, they had a good view of the audience-hall. At the head, or upper end, was a large throne, raised about 20 feet high. It is wide at the foot and goes up tapering, to the top. In front is another throne of a smaller size, but of the same shape, and about one-third of the way down the hall is a small gilt table, 3 feet high, covered with velvet cushions, on which sat, or rather lay the king. At a side-door near to the feet of his majesty, was Chow Fa; and opposite were one or two princes, all lying down. Well down the hall, was the head minister in the same position, and after him, the other ministers according to their rank. The presents were placed in the

middle, and the visitors immediately behind them. The hall was crowded with petty officers. The king, during the audience, eat heartily of seeree and betel, washing his mouth occasionally with tea. A little behind, numerous servants were in attendance, mostly all boys. There were two or three on each side fanning his majesty with a gold fan. On both sides also, were several tiers of white umbrellas; and on a cushion beside the king were the sword of state, a gold spittoon, and a gold betel box.

His majesty of Siam is low in stature, very corpulent, but of fair complexion. He was clothed in a paltry silk Siam dress, with a small bit of crape, of a light brownish colour around him. When he rose, he took the sword of state in his hand, and walked off, stopping a few seconds to speak to Chow Fa, and when he turned his back to make his exist at a door behind the large throne, all gave three grand salaams; after which they began chatting aloud.

Most of the time spent in the audience was occupied by giving the king his titles. At every question and every answer there were three salaams; then followed the titles, and then the question or answer, which made the matter rather tedious, at last.

The hall is a spacious building, and the walls and pillars are painted to imitate papering. The length may be 90, or 100 feet. The pillars supporting the roof are very large, being square, about 5 feet each way. From the roof several paltry China-glass chandeliers and some old-fashioned ornaments were hanging. On the walls between each pillar, were several portraits (or daubs) on glass, representing European men and women.

The place outside is pretty clean, the ground being paved with large flag-stones. The palace covers a large space, and consists of several detached buildings. After an audience, it is usual to shew strangers the curiosities kept within the range. The first is the white elephant. He is generally brought out, with a gold cloth, like a saddle-cloth on his back, and a gold net over his forehead. He is called the white elephat, but he literally is a dun one, the colour being light dun, resembling a white buffaloe-colour. His size is not large, being about 10 to 11 feet high; his tusks are small and very old. Outside, were numerous black elephants, some of immense size, probably 14 feet high, with tusks of 6 or 7 feet long, and ornamented with gold or gilt rings. A great many convicts are employed in cutting grass for these animals, and this is considered a great degradation in Siam. When a person does wrong, it is usual to say, he should be sent to cut grass for the elephants.

The next curiosities are the king's carriages; there are two, both large, clumsy, unweildy vehicles, running on 10 or 12 small wheels. They are used only in great processions, such as the burning of a king, &c. &c.

A few ponies are kept on a platform, close to the carriages, whose service is to draw the latter; but they are generally dragged along with the carriages by the populace, on state occasions. The conveyances when running, make a hideous, creaking noise, which can be heard at a great distance. There are several European carriages, but they are never used, and are kept in a most filthy state.

It was formerly the custom, on entering the audience-hall, to take off one's shoes; this Mr. Crawfurd submitted to in 1822, as is mentioned in his book on Siam, but he omitted to state when he put his shoes on again. The fact is, some one from trick, or probably for the value of the shoes, either hid or stole his shoes during the audience, and this was the more annoying, as a shower of rain had fallen, and he was obliged to walk in his silk stocking-soles, to see the white elephant, pagoda, &c.

After the carriages, the king's stud is shewn. There are a good number of horses and ponies, upwards of 50 or 60 in number, forming altogether a handsome collection. They are chiefly half-Arabs, with one or two real Arabs, and some large Java ponies. They are kept in stalls raised like stories, in an odd position, appearing as if they were standing only on their hind legs. They are never ridden. The keepers, on being asked the reason of the present posture of the horses, could state none except that the order was to keep them so.

The next curiosities are two or three white monkies; they are very white and pretty, and are kept in the elephant-sheds with a large white-headed elephant which is shortly expected to turn white altogether, from age.

On leaving the palace the writer observed some petty officers torturing a man, in order to make him confess something of which he declared total ignorance. The unfortunate wretch was placed between two bamboos, like the legs of a compass opened out, with his neck towards the end which was tied close; the open ends were then pulled together so as to squeeze the neck dreadfully. A small instrument of the same description was on one of his fingers.

His feet were then stretched and tied to one angle, while a rope fastened round his middle was drawn tight to the opposite angle, so as to pull him almost in halves. Rattans were lying ready to flog him with. At length, they put an instrument, like a nut-cracker, consisting of two pieces of wood fastened at one end, and having in the middle a small piece of wood of the size of a betel-nut, projecting. This was placed just above the ear of the man, and pulled close; he shivered from head to foot, and the excessive pain he endured seemed too much for human nature to bear. The writer could remain no longer a witness to these cruelties, and left the unfortunate sufferer in the hands of his merciless tormentors.

The writer visited the head prince of the kingdom, or the Crom-ma-Luang, to whom he presented some gurrahs, long cloths, chintzes, &c. This prince is of a lively and frank disposition; he expected to have been made second king, and possesses much power. The king himself compliments him when they meet. He is a large fat man, as all the princes are, and lives in a dirty old house, to reach which a person is obliged to walk half way up to the knees in mud and water.

On visiting prince Crom-ma-Chebet, the writer was also well received, and treated with tea, sweetmeats, and fruits. This prince is very childish in his manner, and any little curiosity pleases him much. His audience hall is fitted up like a doctor's shop, with bottles and medicines in small drawers and cases. He had a medicine chest made up under his own eye, and according to his own fancy. There is a great quantity of glass-ware at one end of the hall, and a large glass throne for his god Budh. The hall is hung with chandeliers, one of which in particular, is valuable and handsome. He himself is possessed of much wealth, and tho' fickle in his disposition, is easily imposed on, if any one can have patience to talk him over. He is no friend to the Praklang, who, although not a prince by birth, yet keeps all the princes in fine order from his great influence with the king. The writer also visited a brother of the above Crom-ma-Chebet, but found his house, or palace, as such are called, much inferior to that of the latter; nothing but bare walls, and no chandeliers.

Luc noi-nam, or the swimming child. This prodigy is a little girl of three years old; she could swim at the age of one year, and never seems happy, but when in the water. When put into it, she goes thro' many evolutions, but does not swim like other human beings; she rolls herself round and round, apparently without the least exertion to keep herself afloat and seems as light as cork. When taken out of the water, she is very cross, cries, and strives with all her strength to regain it. When placed in it, she is very playful, and tumbles and rolls herself in it, with evident pleasure. She can neither speak nor walk; the only sound she emits is a kind of gargling noise in the throat like a person choaking.

The mother is a good-looking woman, and has had four children, 2 boys and 2 girls, of whom the two former are dead, and the elder girl is now 7 or 8 years old. She is generally swimming with, or watching her sister, to give her a new direction, in case of accident from a boat or the bank. The swimming child is likewise defective in her sight, and has not yet tasted any other food than her mother's milk.

Annual Revenue obtained by the Government of Siam from Farms and Duties.

Names.	Annual Quantity.	Prices in Ticals	Duties.	Revenues.
				Ticals
Paddy and Rice	1,696,424 Coyans of 23 pls.	1st. sort 16 ticals.		
" "		2d. " 14 "		862,358
" "		3d. " 12 "		
Orchards	68,235 in No.			5,545,880
Vegetables	4251			17,800
Samsoo or Spirit Shops	Bankok			104,900
"	Sieuthaja			16,000
"	Bangxang			8,000
"	Suraburi			4,000
"	Krungtaphan			4,000
Bazars,	Bankok			39,200
"	Sieuthaja			12,800
"	Suraburi			1,600
"	Bangxang			1,600
Duty on Floating Houses				36,000
Chinese Gambling				64,000
Siamese do.				58,000
Teak Wood	127,000 trees			56,000
Sapan Wood	200,000 piculs	1st. sort 3½ to 3		
"	"	2d. " 2½ to 2		84,000
"	"	3d. " 1½ to 1		
Cocoanut Oil	660,000 "	7½ to 8	1¼ to 1½	56,000
Sugar 1st.	10,000 "	8½ to 9		
" 2nd.	60,000 "	7 to 7½		
" 3rd.	20,000 "	6 to 6½	4½	40,000
" Black	1,000 "	2½ to 3		
" Candy	5,000 "	16 to 17	½	
Jaggery	150,000 Jars	18 tcls. p. 100 jars	2 ticals.	8,800
Salt	8,000 Coyans	2½ to 3	6	32,000
Pepper	38,000 piculs	10 to 11	1½	23,200
Bastard Cardamums	4,000 "	32 to 40	6 ticals.	16,000
Cardamums	1st. 100 "	360 to 380	"	
"	2d. 150 "	280 to 360	16 "	5,400
"	3d. 300 "	200 to 220	"	
Sticlac	8000 "	12 13 14	1¼	9,500
Tin	1200 "	24 26 28	3 ticals.	18,200
Iron	20,000 "	4 5 6	"	54,000
Ivory	300 "	160 170 180	12 do.	2,500
Gamboge	1st. 50 to 60	75 to 80		
"	2d. 150 "	55 to 60	6 do.	1,200
"	3rd. 50 "	40 to 45		
Rhinoceros Horns	50 to 60	800 per picul.	32 per picul.	1,600
Benjamin	100 "	50 to 55		400
Birds' Nests		1st sort 10 000		
"	10 to 12 "	2d. " 6,000	6 ticals.	32,000
"		3d. " 4,000		
Young Deers' Horns	26,000 pairs	1½ to 2	10 per 100	3,600
Old do. do.	200 piculs	8 to 9 per picul,	½	
Buffaloe do.	200 "	3 to 4 "	½	
Deer's Nerves	200 "	16 to 20	1½	
Rhinoceros Skins	200 "	7 to 8	½	
Tigers Bones	50 to 60	50 to 60	3 ticals.	800
Buffaloe Hides	500 "	8 to 10	½	
Deer's do.	100,000 "	20 25. & 30	3 ticals.	1,600
White Dried Fish	4,000 "	8 to 9	½	
Black do.	15,000 "	7 to 8	½	18,000
Small dried fish	60,000 "	3 to 4	½	
Dried Shrimps	10,000 "	30 to 35	3	
Balachang	15,000 coyans	50 to 60	12 "	4,600
Wood Oil	15,000 piculs	3 to 5	½	8,000
Pitch	10,000 "	3 to 4	½	5,600
Torches	200,000 bundles	5 ticals per 100	½	6,000
Rattans	200,000 "	4 " "	½	5,600
Firewood			½	14,000
Wooden Posts	1st. 500 to 600 in No.	1 per 4 ticals.	10 per 100	
"	2d. 30,00 "	1 per 2 do	5 "	8,000
"	3d. 200,000 "	100per 25 30 40	" "	
Bamboos	600,000,000 in No,	3 ticals per 100	10 "	8,000
Attaps	95,000,000,000	3 ticals per 1000	15 " 100	3,000
Rose wood	200,000	3 m. per picul.	20 "	1,600
Bark	200,000 bundles	100 per 6 ticals.	10 "	
				1,600

Provinces under the superintendence of the Crommahathai, or 1st. minister.	Tcls.	32,000
Do. Do. Do. of theCrommakallahom, or 2d. Do.	„	24,000
Do. Do. Do. of the Crommatha, or 3d. Do.	„	12,000
Revenue of justice under the Crommamuang	„	4,800
„ of the Tribunal	„	8,000

„ derived from the gold in the province called Bangtaphan, 180 ticals weight of gold.
„ „ „ in the province called Pipri, 60 ticals weight of Gold.
Tribute which the Malays pay for gold mines, 216 ticals weight of gold.

EXPENDITURE.

Salaries which the king pays to the government officers annually	Ticals	618,800
Alms to the Talapoins and the poor	„	87,600
Monthly allowances to the sons of the late and present kings and the second king	„	29,000
Annual salaries of all the princes employed, and the minors	„	47,400
Annual pay of the Talapoins	„	18,240

TREATY WITH SIAM.

Between the Honorable East India Company and the King of Siam.

The powerful lord, who is in possession of every good and every dignity, the god Boodh, who dwells over every head in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, (titles of the kingdom of Siam,) incomprehensible to the head and brain; the sacred beauty of the royal palace, serene and infallible there, (titles of Wang-na or second king of Siam,) have bestowed their commands upon the heads of their excellencies, the ministers of high rank, belonging to the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, to assemble and frame a treaty with captain Henry Burney, the English envoy, on the part of the English government, the honorable east India company, who govern the countries in India, belonging to the English, under the authority of the king and parliament of England: and the right honorable lord Amherst, Governor of Bengal, and other English officers of high rank, have deputed captain Burney, as an envoy to represent them, and to frame a treaty with their excellencies, the ministers of high rank, belonging to the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, in view, that the Siamese and English nation may become great and true friends, connected in love and affection with genuine candour and sincerity on both sides. The Siamese and English frame two uniform copies of the treaty, in order, that one copy may be placed in the kingdom of Siam, and that it may become known throughout every great and small province, subject to Siam, and in order, that one copy may be placed in Bengal, and that it may become known throughout every great and small province, subject to the English government. Both copies of the treaty will be attested by the royal seal, by the seals of their excellencies, the ministers of high rank in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, and by the seals of the right honorable lord Amherst, Governor of Bengal, and of the other English officers of high rank.

Article 1st.—The English and Siamese engage in friendship, love and affection, with mutual truth, sincerity, and candour. The Siamese must not meditate or commit evil, so as to molest the English in any manner. The English must not meditate or commit evil, so as to molest the Siamese in any manner. The Siamese must not go and molest, attack, disturb, seize or take any place, territory or boundary, belonging to the English, in any country, subject to the English. The English must not go and molest, attack, disturb, seize or take any place, territory or boundary, belonging to the Siamese, in any country, subject to the Siamese. The Siamese shall settle every matter within the Siamese boundaries, according to their own will and customs.

Article 2d.—Should any place or country subject to the English, do any thing that may offend the Siamese, the Siamese shall not go and injure such place or country, but first report the matter to the English, who will examine into it with truth and sincerity, and if the fault lie with the English, the English shall punish according to the fault. Should any place or country, subject to the Siamese, do any thing that may offend the English, the English shall not go and injure such place or country, but first report the matter to the Siamese, who will examine into it, with truth and sincerity, and it the fault lie with the Siamese, the Siamese shall punish according to the fault. Should any Siamese place or country that is near an English country, collect at any time an army, or a fleet of boats, if the chief of the English country enquire the object of such force, the chief of the Siamese country must declare it. Should any English place or country, that is near a Siamese country, collect at any time an army, or a fleet of boats, if the chief of the Siamese country enquire the subject of such force, the chief of the English country must declare it.

Article 3d.—In places and countries belonging to the Siamese and English, lying near their mutual borders, whether to the east, west, north, or south, if the English entertain a

doubt as to any boundary that has not been ascertained, the chief, on the side of the English, must send a letter with some men, and people from his frontier posts, to go and enquire from the nearest Siamese chief; who shall depute some of his officers, and people from his frontier posts, to go with the men, belonging to the English chief and point out and settle the mutual boundaries, so that they may be ascertained on both sides in a friendly manner. If a Siamese chief entertain a doubt as to any boundary that has not been ascertained, the chief, on the side of the Siamese, must send a letter with some men, and people from his frontier posts, to go and enquire from the nearest English chief, who shall depute some of his officers and people, from his frontier posts, to go with the men, belonging to the Siamese chief, and point out and settle the mutual boundaries, so that they may be ascertained on both sides in a friendly manner.

Article 4th.—Should any Siamese subject go and live within the boundaries of the English, the Siamese must not intrude, enter, seize or take such person within the English boundaries, but must report and ask for him in a proper manner, and the English shall be at liberty to deliver the party or not. Should any English subject remove and go and live within the boundaries of the Siamese, the English must not intrude, enter, seize or take such person within the Siamese boundaries, but must report and ask for him in a proper manner, and the Siamese shall be at liberty to deliver the party or not.

Article 5th.—The English and Siamese having concluded a treaty, establishing a sincere friendship between them, merchants, subject to the English, and their ships, junks, and boats, may have intercourse and trade, with any Siamese country, which has much merchandize, and the Siamese will aid and protect them, and permit them to buy and sell with facility. Merchants, subject to the Siamese, and their boats, junks, and ships, may have intercourse and trade, with any English country, and the English will aid and protect them, and permit them to buy and sell with facility. The Siamese desiring to go to an English country, or the English desiring to go to a Siamese country, must conform to the customs of the place or country on either side: should they be ignorant of the customs, the Siamese or English officers must explain them. Siamese subjects who visit an English country, must conduct themselves according to the established laws of the English country in every particular. English subjects who visit a Siamese country, must conduct themselves according to the established laws of the Siamese country in every particular.

Article 6th.—Merchants, subject to the Siamese or English going to trade either in Bengal, or any country subject to the English, or at Bankok, or in any country subject to the Siamese, must pay the duties upon commerce, according to the customs of the place or country on either side, and such merchants, and the inhabitants of the country, shall be allowed to buy and sell without the intervention of other persons in such countries. Should a Siamese or English merchant have any complaint or suit, he must complain to the officers and governors on either side, and they will examine and settle the same, according to the established laws of the place or country on either side. If a Siamese or English merchant buy or sell without enquiring and ascertaining, whether the seller or buyer be of a bad or good character, and if he meet with a bad man, who takes the property and absconds, the rulers and officers must make search and produce the person of the absconder, and investigate the matter with sincerity. If the party possess money or property, he can be made to pay; but if he do not possess any, or if he cannot be apprehended, it will be the merchant's own fault.

Article 7th.—A merchant, subject to the Siamese or English, going to trade in any English or Siamese country, and applying to build godowns or houses, or to buy or hire shops or houses, in which to place his merchandize, the Siamese or English officers and rulers shall be at liberty to deny him permission to stay. If they permit him to stay, he shall land and take up his residence according to such terms as may be mutually agreed on: and the Siamese or English officers and rulers will assist and take proper care of him, preventing the inhabitants of the country from oppressing him, and preventing him from oppressing the inhabitants of the country. Whenever a Siamese or English merchant or subject, who has nothing to detain him, requests permission to leave the country, and to embark with his property on board of any vessel, he shall be allowed to do so with facility.

Article 8th.—If a merchant desire to go and trade in any place or country, belonging to the English or Siamese, and his ship, boat, or junk, meet with any injury whatever, the English or Siamese officers shall afford adequate assistance and protection. Should any vessel, belonging to the Siamese or English, be wrecked in any place, or country where the English

or Siamese may collect any of the property belonging to such vessel, the English or Siamese officers shall make proper enquiry, and cause the property to be restored to its owner, or, in case of his death, to his heirs, and the owner or heir will give a proper recompense to persons, who may have collected the property. If any Siamese or English subject die in an English or Siamese country, whatever property he may leave, shall be delivered to his heir; if the heir be not living in the same country and unable to come, he may appoint a person by letter to receive the property, and the whole of it shall be delivered to such person.

Article 9th.—Merchants, subject to the English, desiring to come and trade in any Siamese country, with which it has not been the custom to have trade and intercourse, must first go and enquire of the governor of the country. Should any country have no merchandize, the governor shall inform the ship that has come to trade, that there is none. Should any country have merchandize sufficient for a ship, the governor shall allow her to come and trade.

Article 10th.—the English and Siamese mutually agree, that there shall be an unrestricted trade between them, in the English countries of Prince of Wales Island, Malacca and Singapore, and the Siamese countries of Ligor, Merdilous, Singora, Patani, Junkceylon, Queda, and other Siamese provinces: Asiatic merchants of the English countries, not being Burmese, Peguers, or descendants of Europeans, shall be allowed to trade freely, over land, and by means of the rivers. Asiatic merchants, not being Burmese, Peguers, or descendants of Europeans, desiring to enter into, and trade with the Siamese dominions, from the countries of Mergui, Tavoy, Tenasserim and Ye, which are now subject to the English, will be allowed to do so freely, over land, and by water, upon the English furnishing them with proper certificates. But merchants are forbidden to bring opium, which is positively a contraband article in the territories of Siam; and should a merchant introduce any, the governors shall seize, burn and destroy the whole of it.

Article 11.—If any Englishman desire to transmit a letter to any person in a Siamese or other country, such person only and no other shall open and look into the letter. If a Siamese desire to transmit a letter to any person in an English or other country, such person only and no other shall open and look into the letter.

Article 12th.—Siam shall not go and obstruct or interrupt commerce in the state of Tringanu and Calantan; English merchants and subjects shall have trade and intercourse in future with the same facility and freedom, as they have heretofore had, and the English shall not go and molest, attack or disturb those states upon any pretence whatever.

Article 13th.—The Siamese engage to the English, that the Siamese shall remain in Queda, and take proper care of that country and of its people; the inhabitants of Prince of Wales Island and of Queda, shall have trade and intercourse as heretofore; the Siamese shall levy no duty upon stock and provisions such as cattle, buffaloes, poultry, fish, paddy, and rice, which the inhabitants of Prince of Wales' Island or ships there, may have occasion to purchase in Queda, and the Siamese shall not farm the mouths of rivers, or any streams in Queda, but shall levy fair and proper import and export duties. The Siamese further engage, that when Chou Phya of Ligore, returns from Bankok, he shall release the slaves, personal servants, family and kindred belonging to the former governor of Queda, and permit them to go and live wherever they please. The English engage to the Siamese, that the English do not desire to take possession of Queda, that they will not attack or disturb it, nor permit the former governor of Queda, or any of his followers to attack, disturb or injure, in any manner the territory of Queda, or any other territory subject to Siam. The English engage that they will make arrangements for the former governor of Queda to go and live in some other country, and not at Prince of Wales's Island or Prye, or in Perak, Salangore, or any Burmese country. If the English do not let the former governor of Queda go and live in some other country, as here engaged, the Siamese may continue to levy an export duty upon paddy and rice in Queda. The English will not prevent any Siamese, Chinese, or other Asiatics at Prince of Wales's Island, from going to reside in Queda, if they desire it.

Article 14th.—The Siamese and English mutually engage, that the rajah of Perak shall govern his country according to his own will; should he desire to send the gold and silver flowers to Siam as heretofore, the English will not prevent his doing as he may desire. If Chou Phya, of Ligore, desire to send down to Perak, with friendly intentions, forty or fifty men, whether Siamese, Chinese or other Asiatic subjects of Siam, or if the rajah of Perak de-

sire to send any of his ministers or officers to seek Chou Phya, of Ligore, the English shall not forbid them. The Siamese or English shall not send any force, to go and molest, attack, or disturb Perak. The English will not allow the state of Salangore to attack or disturb Perak, and the Siamese shall not go and attack or disturb Salangore. The arrangements stipulated in these two last articles respecting Perak and Queda, Chou Phya, of Ligore, shall execute as soon as he returns home from Bankok. The fourteen articles of this treaty, let the great and subordinate Siamese and English officers, together with every great and small province, hear, receive, and obey, without fail. Their excellencies the ministers of high rank at Bankok, and captain Henry Burney, whom the right honorable lord Amherst, governor of Bengal, deputed as an envoy to represent his lordship, framed this treaty together in the presence of prince Krom Menn Loorin Thiraksa, in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya. The treaty, written in the Siamese, Malayan, and English language, was concluded on tuesday, on the first day of the Seventh decreasing moon, 1188 year, dog 8 according to the Siamese æra; corresponding with the twentieth day of June, 1826, of the European æra. Both copies of the treaty are sealed and attested by their excellencies the ministers, and by captain Henry Burney. One copy captain Henry Burney will take for the ratification of the governor of Bengal, and one copy, bearing the royal seal, Chou Phya, of Ligore, will take and place at Queda. Captain Burney appoints to return to Prince of Wales Island in seven months, in the second moon of the year dog 8, and to exchange the ratification of this treaty with Phra Phrak-di-Borirak at Queda. The Siamese and English will form a friendship that shall be perpetuated, that shall know no end or interruption, as long as heaven and earth endure.

Their excellencies the ministers and captain Henry Burney, having settled a treaty of friendship consisting of fourteen articles, now frame the following agreement, with respect to English vessels, desiring to come and trade in the city of the sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya, (Bankok.)

Article 1st.—Vessels, belonging to the subjects of the English government, whether Europeans or Asiatics, desiring to come and trade at Bankok, must conform to the established laws of Siam in every particular. Merchants, coming to Bankok, are prohibited from purchasing paddy or rice, for the purpose of exporting the same as merchandize, and, if they import fire arms, shot, or gunpowder, they are prohibited from selling them to any party, but to the government. Should the government not require such firearms, shot, or gun-powder, the merchants must re-export the whole of them. With exception to such warlike stores, and paddy and rice, merchants, subjects of the English and merchants at Bankok, may buy and sell without the intervention of any other person, and with freedom and facility. Merchants, coming to trade, shall pay at once the whole of the duties and charges, consolidated according to the breadth of the vessel.

If the vessel bring an import cargo, she shall be charged seventeen hundred, (1700) ticals for each Siamese fathom in breadth.

If the vessel bring no import cargo, she shall be charged fifteen hundred (1500) ticals for each Siamese fathom in breadth.

No import, export, or other duty shall be levied upon the buyers or sellers, from or to English subjects.

Article 2d.—merchant vessels, the property of English subjects, arriving off the bar, must first anchor and stop there, and the commander of the vessel must dispatch a person, with an account of the cargo, and a return of the people, guns, shot and powder, on board the vessel for the information of the governor, at the mouth of the river; who will send a pilot and interpreter, to convey the established regulations to the commander of the vessel. Upon the pilot bringing the vessel over the bar, she must anchor and stop below the chokey, which the interpreter will point out.

Article 3d.—The proper officer will go on board the vesesl, and examine her thoroughly, and after the guns, shot and powder, have been removed and deposited at Paknam, (post at the mouth of the Meinam) the governor of Paknam will permit the vessel to pass up to Bankok.

Article 4th.—Upon the vessel's arriving at Bankok, the officers of the customs will go on board and examine her, open the hold, and take an account of whatever cargo may be on board, and after the breadth of the vessel has been measured and ascertained, the merchants will be allowed to buy and sell according to the first article of this agreement. Should a vessel, upon receiving an export cargo, find that she cannot cross the bar with the whole, and

that she must hire cargo-boats to take down a portion of the cargo, the officers of the customs and chokeys, shall not charge any further duty upon such cargo boats.

Article 5th.—Whenever a vessel or cargo-boat completes her lading the commander of the vessel must go and ask Chou Phya Phra Klang for a port-clearance, and if there be no cause for detention, Chou Phya Phra Klang shall deliver the port-clearance without delay. When the vessel, upon her departure, arrives at Paknam, she must anchor and stop at the usual chokey, and after the proper officers have gone on board, and examined her, the vessel may receive her guns, shot, and powder, and take her departure.

Article 6th.—Merchants, being subjects of the English government, whether Europeans or Asiatics, the commanders, officers, lascars, and the whole of the crew of vessels, must conform to the established laws of Siam, and to the stipulations of this treaty in every particular. If merchants, of every class, do not observe the articles of this treaty, and oppress the inhabitants of this country, become thieves or bad men, kill men, speak offensively of, or treat disrespectfully, any great or subordinate officers of the country, and the case become important in any way whatever, the proper officers shall take jurisdiction of it, and punish the offender. If the offence be homicide, and the officers, upon investigation, see that it proceeded from evil intention, they shall punish with death. If it be any other offence, and the party be commander or officer of a vessel, or a merchant, he shall be fined; if he be of a lower rank, he shall be whipped or imprisoned, according to the established laws of Siam. The governor of Bengal will prohibit English subjects, desiring to come and trade at Bankok speaking disrespectfully or offensively to or of the great officers of Siam. If any person at Bankok oppress any English subjects, he shall be punished according to his offence in the same manner.

The six articles of this agreement, let the officers at Bankok, and merchants, subject to the English, fulfil and obey in every particular.

[*Singapore Chronicle, June* 1833.]

Our remarks on the Siamese treaty, which occupied so large a space in our last number, shall be as few and brief as we can possibly render them. The subject is not an attractive one, but editorial custom and our own promise forbid that it should be allowed to pass in absolute silence. The treaty has been much decried and certainly we had no prepossession in its favour, but on giving it a calm perusal, it does appear to us that the commercial part of it is quite as good as could be looked for, and that it will, if observed, very considerably improve the situation of the British merchant in Siam. But it is said that it will *not* be observed—possibly it may not, since the best treaty that ever yet was framed may be broken. If however the government of India will indulge in the expensive *cacoethes* of sending missions "beyond the Ganges and the east" to woo the ruler of the "sacred and great kingdom of Si-a-yoo-tha-ya," the same government, no doubt, intends to see that the treaties which it frames *shall* be to the uttermost tittle observed.

The subjects of complaint by British merchants trading to Siam were, so far as we have been able to learn them, principally these—that merchants were not permitted freely to buy and sell, that they could not in fact do so at all without the permission of the government, and that even where this permission was granted its effects could always be counteracted by an order to the people at peril of their heads either to buy or sell to the English merchant, an order which at once gave the Praklang (by the learned called P'hra k'hlang) and his satellites absolute command of the market, so that they could impose upon foreigners, either in buying or selling, whatever prices they thought proper. Then to render the power of prëemption still more effective, captains and supercargoes had to deliver musters of all the goods they had on board, on which the Praklang fixed certain prices, and it was the constant endeavour of this officer to prevent the people of Bankok from making any purchases until he had selected whatever he pleased, for which he would not at once fix a fair price, but by dint of shuffling contrived to tire the merchant out, and he was generally obliged, after waiting day after day and week after week, to submit to any terms these people chose to impose or lose the chance of selling the rest of his cargo to any advantage.

Then there was the mode of levying the duties which were not only exorbitant but uncertain in their amount. On imports it was generally 8 per cent, but on exports it was altogether fluctuating and uncertain. The amount of the import duty was not so much complain-

ed of, as the mode of levying it. If the goods imported were likely to sell high, they insisted on the duty being paid in cash; if low, in kind; and for the purpose of taking the duties in the latter mode they "overhauled" the whole cargo, at which the attendance of a number of clerks was always required who were to see every individual case and package opened, an operation bad enough in any hands, but as conducted in Siam, vexatious and annoying to the last degree.

Then besides other duties, there were what has been termed a measurement duty and a number of fees and charges included under the head of "anchorage dues," which were not only high but what is nearly as bad, uncertain, being ascertained by no fixed or established rule.

Next in the list, and putting duties out of the question, the forms which were to be gone through in landing or shipping a cargo were much and justly complained of. You could neither deliver nor receive cargo without the simultaneous attendance of four or five clerks, and the absence of any one of these official personages was sufficient to stop the operation, so that often business could not commence till three, four, or even five o'clock in the afternoon, and this was especially the case with sugar.

These and a number of other exactions and annoyances which it would be useless more particularly to allude to, formed altogether a *mass* of grievances which, if it was worth while carrying on trade with Siam in English ships at all, it was worth while attempting to remove, and we think captain Burney's treaty is as likely to effect this as any treaty formed with a barbaric people could be expected to do. The British merchant in Siam may now, if the treaty be observed, buy and sell as he pleases, and although he is still subject to heavy charges, those charges are less than they were, and what is of no little importance, they are now fixed and ascertained, so that previous to entering on a voyage the expenses may now be calculated with some exactness, and merchants will be able to ascertain better than before, in what description of vessel trade can be most advantageously carried on with Siam.

Whilst on this subject, our contemporary of the *Calcutta Chronicle* will pardon our noticing an error into which he has inadvertently fallen, misled it would appear by what he deemed the authentic information of a correspondent whose letter must have been written as far back as December last. Our cotemporary says in his paper of the 25th of February,

"There is an English vessel now at Siam which is so far from being allowed to trade with the merchants of Bankok without the intervention of any other person, that no trade we are informed is permitted to be carried on without the agency of an officer of government, who in fact entirely *defeats* the freedom of trade provided for in the treaty."

If our cotemporary had said that the trade with Siam was, at the date of his correspondent's letter, on a worse footing than it had been before, he would not have been far wrong, but this would not prove the inefficiency of the treaty which was not to come into operation until returned ratified from Bengal, which it had not been at that time, nor for several months afterwards. The vessel alluded to by the *Calcutta Chronicle*, certainly was charged higher duties than vessels of her size formerly were, but that was only what might have been expected before she left this for Siam. The treaty was not to take effect until returned from Bengal, and this vessel going up in the interim and being probably the last they would be able to practise their arbitrary exactions on, it was not unnatural to suppose that she would be *squeezed* as much as possible; but this, if it affords an argument on either side, is in favour of the treaty.

On the political part of the subject we can say little. The treaty, agreement, or whatever else it may be termed by which the Island of Penang was ceded to the English, has never been published; it is among the records of government and inaccessible to the vulgar eye, so that all we know of it is from hearsay, (hearsay however of the most authentic kind,) and from this we think that our treatment of the present king of Queda has, to say nothing worse of it, been shabby in the extreme. From his father the English had not the least hesitation in receiving a grant of the Island of Penang—*his* title was not questioned, but now *tempora mutantur* and it may be truly added *et nos mutamur in illis*—we now discover that the son has no title, and style him in the treaty the "late governor of Queda," and, not content with removing him from the asylum we have hitherto afforded him, stipulate that we will not *suffer* him to make any attempt to recover what he deems his just possessions. To say that this man is a poor creature, and that it is a mockery of the name of king to apply it to such as he, is nothing to the purpose—meanness and injustice must ever be the same, no matter who may be their victims.

[*Singapore Chronicle, 24th May, 1827.*]

ACCOUNT OF THE LATE MISSION TO SIAM AND COCHIN-CHINA.

The mission quitted Calcutta on the 21st November, 1821; left the pilot on the 27th, and after a pleasant passage reached the northern point of Penang late on the night of the 10th December, but did not finally cast anchor in the harbour till early the next morning; when Mr. Crawfurd and suite disembarked under the customary salutes, and proceeded to Suffolk, the delightful residence of the honorable the governor about three miles distant. During this part of the voyage they passed near the Islands of the Preparis, Narcondam, and Seyer. On the first of these an attempt was made to land, but a strong breeze causing at the time much appearance of surf, this could not be with safety effected. The second was passed at a considerable distance; but on the great Seyer Island they were more successful. This is described as an abrupt rocky granitic Island, covered with luxuriant vegetation; amongst which the palms were predominant and various; and the plantain in a wild state. A great variety of marine shells were collected. On the 8th December, also a calm gave an opportunity for landing on the Malay Peninsula a little north of Junk Ceylon. The shore bold and rocky chiefly of granite; and a thick high jungle, with many palms, skirting it as far as the eye could discern.

Penang, and its varied beauties are too well known to need mention. The mission after receiving two messengers and a complimentary letter from the Ligore rajah proceeded again on their voyage on the 3d January, 1822, but were much delayed by calms, and did not reach the Islands commonly called the Dindings till the 8th. They landed in order to visit the remains of a small Dutch Fort erected for the protection of the trade of that nation in that quarter; but long since abandoned, and fallen to decay. There is however a well protected small harbour, but the Island itself is an abrupt granitic mountain covered with beautifully luxuriant vegetation, but incapable of the smallest degree of cultivation.

On the 13th the mission reached Malacca where it remained three days. On the 18th passed the Carimons, on the largest of which they landed; but found it barren and void of interest.

The next day, the 19th, the mission reached the beautiful little settlement of Singapore; but were not able to disembark till the next morning, when they were received with the customary honors, and every attention by the resident Colonel Farquhar.

Much has been lately written, and much information obtained, on the subject of this new, but rising settlement; yet however much expectation may have been raised by the favorable nature of these statements, there is far from any impression of exaggeration. After visiting the pretty, yet almost deserted town of Malacca, the contrasted bustle and activity, and numerous and varied description of vessels in the harbour of this island cannot but forcibly arrest the attention. The scenery though, excepting in its lofty forests, not grand nor sublime, is extremely rich and beautiful; particularly on turning towards the very extensive group of fine islands lying to the south. With every requisite, it would be imagined, for the worst of tropical climates, in thick forests, intervening stagnant swamps, and constant, often heavy rain, no part of Asia can perhaps be said to possess so great a degree of salubrity and such an equable, though rather high temperature. Tempests are almost unknown, and oppressive heats almost equally rare. Its vegetable productions also are varied, novel, and highly interesting. And possessing as it does from position, as well as from every other circumstance, superior advantages for a commercial settlement, it cannot fail, should it be secured to the British nation, of rising to a pitch of prosperity with a rapidity of which we shall have had little parallel.

On the 23rd, the monsoon appearing to have favourably changed, the mission again embarked, but did not finally get clear till the 25th. On the 26th they anchored off the southern point of the Malay Peninsula and a party landed on a rocky, woody shore, presenting nothing

of interest. They were then obliged to stand over towards Borneo which they first saw on the first March, and were detained off Tanjong Opec, by strong contrary winds, till the 4th when they passed close by the high rocky islands of the Southern Natunas.

On the 11th March the Mission reached Pulo Baby on which a party landed, and found two Cochin-Chinese families of poor fishermen, and a small patch of cultivation for their subsistence on the little level ground between the abrupt granitic hills and the sea. Probably from less frequent rain, the vegetation here does not equal in magnitude, or luxuriance that of the Malay islands and straits. They first saw here the white pigeon; a fine bird which is, however, by no means rare or undescribed.

From the 13th to the 22d March, when the mission ship anchored off the bar of the Siam river, its course was through an innumerable group of islands which are studded thickly along the eastern side of the gulf of Siam. Many of these were visited as opportunity offered, and much novel and interesting information obtained, both geographical and in natural history, and nothing could exceed the beauty of the scene derived from the varied forms, size, and vegetation of these islands; many contain inhabitants who collect the aguila or eagle wood: a production of these forests highly valued in all parts of Asia for fumigation.

On the 25th having received a pilot from Pak-nam, a considerable fishing village at the mouth of the Menam, the ship crossed the bar after remaining a short period aground on the long mud flat, between the hard sandy bar and the actual entrance of the river, till the reflux of the tide enabled her again to proceed.

On the 28th having received permission from the Court, the Mission proceeded in the JOHN ADAM towards the capital; which it reached early next day; and on the 1st. April Mr. Crawfurd landed and occupied a long tiled building prepared for his reception, in front of the residence of the Prak-lang or Acting Minister for foreign trade, a similar one for the reception of his suite not being completed till several days after.

On the 8th the necessary arrangements having been discussed, the envoy and suite had their public audience of the King. They were received in a large, but meanly decorated hall of audience. The scene was at once imposing, singular, and humiliating. The king occupied a recess, faced by a species of gilded balcony raised about 10 or 12 feet from the ground at the extremity of the hall, a portion of which was divided across by an high gold curtain, withdrawn at his entrance, at a signal accompanied by a flourish of trumpets and shouts of the multitude without. Excepting a narrow passage left along its centre, for the passage of the envoy and suite, the whole pavement of the hall was covered by a prostrate multitude, their heads silently bowed to the earth in the direction of the throne, and their hands alone raised clasped in the attitude of devotion above their heads. It was more the silent awe and adoration to a present deity than the respect attached to an earthly ruler: and the king, but slightly and meanly habited, seated above the crowd, seemed more like an inanimate figure of Boodh, than an intelligent being of the same nature as the degraded mortals beneath. The King was dressed in a plain close garment of gold kincob, and wore nothing on his head. On his left was placed, in a reclining posture, a small golden ruler, somewhat resembling (and doubtless of similar import as) a sceptre. Below the balcony was a raised ornamented seat, resembling a throne, and on each side were prostrate men waving large hand-fans. None of the court, excepting the princes of the blood, were admitted behind the curtain, and the part nearest to it was occupied by the nobles according to their rank; each having placed in front of him a golden cup and betel boxes usually presented to them by the king on their nomination to office. On the right side of this quarter of the hall were displayed the presents to his majesty from the Governor-general. The entrance to the hall was concealed by an ornamented China screen and the members of the court whose duty it was to introduce the mission, before passing this, threw themselves on all fours on the ground and thus slowly moving in pairs on hands and knees proceeded, and ushered in the envoy and suite, and having arrived at the part assigned for the reception of the latter and made the usual prostrations they assumed the same attitude of silent devotion with those around. The envoy and suite being seated the audience commenced by a loud reading of the list of the presents. This being finished after a short silence, the king in a strong and oracular voice proposed a few unimportant questions to the envoy, which were repeated in a whisper by the intervening range of interpreters, till at length communicated in an equally low tone to the envoy; and his answers being received were conveyed in the same way to the throne. After another short silence, a sig-

nal, resembling in sound large castinets, accompanied by a flourish of trumpets and shouts, announced the close of the audience and the golden curtain being rapidly drawn, the king retired and the whole court sat up and commenced smoking their small segars and departed without ceremony as they wished. The gentlemen were then requested to view the king's riding elephants, the white elephants and white monkeys, as also the royal temple and sacred library near it, in which are deposited, it is asserted, many splendid and valuable manuscripts.

Nothing particularly superior was remarked in the forms, and the stature was rather low, of the white or the common elephants. The former as well as the monkeys both in form and eyes bore the distinctive colours and appearance of that variety of the human race termed Albinos. The white elephants were highly ornamented, fastened with silver chains, and had their umbrellas arranged on each side of the road; a few spearsmen were also present.

The same abject respect to rank, as that already described, is diffused through every rank of society and is carried even into domestic life. The house menial does not move in the presence of his master or superior, but on hands and knees, and when required to place any thing before him, can only do so, by shoving along the floor and following it in that attitude. From this, even women are not exempt.

The most singular feature perhaps in the present state of Siam is its comparative tranquillity with its internal and external weakness; for excepting a conspiracy, laid to the charge of talapoins or priests, a short time previous to the arrival of the mission, which aimed at the life of the king but was timely detected, this monarch may be said to have enjoyed a long and tranquil reign. Surrounded on all sides by either professed enemies, or distant tributaries, with a court abject, ignorant and seeking each his own individual interests, which as merchants must ever be opposed to that of the kings, accident alone can have favored so despotic and nerveless a government. But such a combination of circumstances has had a most beneful influence on the character, condition, and manners of the people.

With a country, soil, and climate every way favourable and with innumerable navigable streams intersecting it in almost every direction, Siam is a nation without native art, manufacture or commerce. The little of these which it does possess, it owes to the active energies and skill of a distant but enterprizing race. The Chinese settlers, who in the capital of Bankok alone are said to amount to 10,000 not only monopolize all the trades or manufactures here existing, but have originated about 20 years ago the only article (sugar) of commerce of consequence which Siam can in any quantity supply to strangers in return for the numerous imports which they require. These industrious people enjoy many privileges and advantages over even the native Siamese as well as over strangers; the duties paid by them being moderate and they being, on the payment of a small annual tax, exempted from the heavy services to government amounting to six months in the year, exacted from every adult in the kingdom, independent of the constant and unlimited calls for the army. From China is supplied the greater part of manufactured articles for luxury or use required in Siam; and the king himself employs many junks, besides an embassy ship allowed to go free in this trade. Indeed the king and his ministers are the only merchants, claim pre-emption on all articles of import, and take on their own terms all native produce for exportation or consumption; leaving the body of the people with little share in its commerce and little interest in the prosperity of the country.

Bankok, the capital of Siam consists, for the most part, of a long range of [illegible] houses erected on bamboo rafts and ranged along each bank of the river. The palace with its numerous small buildings, occupies a small fortified island. No guns are mounted, but a few of great size are kept for display within the walls. Near the hall of audience is the royal temple, consisting of a single large and lofty apartment richly gilt on the outside and the inside covered with course paintings in the Hindoo style and mostly from the Hindoo fable, with a slight intermixture of European figures in military array. The back part of this temple, leaving however a narrow passage round it, is occupied by an high raised platform covered with numerous figures of Boodh, course articles of glass ware, gilt paper and other offerings of the devout; the whole however covered with dust, and bearing the marks of utter neglect. Many other fine temples also are in other quarters of Bankok, some perhaps larger, but none superior in decoration. One is said to contain near a thousand gilt figures, some of copper cast hollow, but mostly of clay or wood. One of immense stature occupies a separate building in a quarter of the palace enclosure.

The religion of the Siamese is that of Boodh, and it is imcumbent on every one of that sect to be once a talapoin or priest, remaining so however no longer than he desires and only attaining such knowledge of their mysteries as they may themselves wish. The talapoins are associated in large bodies in regular monasteries and every morning at sunrise, the river may be seen covered with small boats conveying them from house to house for alms, chiefly boiled rice and fruit, with which they return at 8 or 9 o'clock to their dwellings. In their dress they are distinguished by an orange coloured robe and a fan of feathers or talapat leaf in their hands.

Little respect appears to be paid by the people to their temples, and few external forms of adoration exist. On certain fixed festivals they carry offerings to the temples and in several domestic occurrences have an assemblage of priests at their homes to feast and perform certain ceremonies.

The Siamese are in stature short, and in form stout, but not athletic. Their dress consists generally of the coarsest Surat chintzes, which are annually brought there in native vessels from that port; though now almost discontinued, from the numerous exactions, delays, and every species of oppression and violence to which traders from every quarter are subjected.

The Siamese have been accused of cruelty in their punishments towards foreigners, perhaps too hastily, as during the stay of the Mission no instance came to their knowledge of capital punishment, or mutilation; notwithstanding the recent discovery of a conspiracy already noticed. Chains, imprisonment, and a liberal use on all occasions of the bamboo seem to form nearly their only inflictions. But in a member of the royal family treason is punished by fracture of the skull with a sandal wood mallet and throwing the body into the sea.

A most singular and disgusting mode of disposing of the dead exists amongst the lower classes. The flesh is cut away from the body in large pieces and distributed to birds and beasts of prey, and the bones then burnt. Perfect incineration is however used amongst the rich, after keeping the bodies in close coffins in the house of their nearest relative a period of time regulated by the rank of the deceased. With members of the royal family the process is still more disgusting and singular, but too tedious and nauseous for detail.

The various obstacles which had thus long detained the Mission in Siam having been surmounted, the envoy and suite embarked on the evening of the 14th July, 1822, reached Pak-nam on the 18th, but did not finally get over the bar till the 20th, having with great labour warped over the long mud flat off the mouth of the river, and being aground every tide. On the 25th they finally sailed towards some islands a short distance off, on the eastern side of the bay, in order to take in ballast, wood and water, readily afforded, as well as fine anchorage at the largest of them called Si-chang. This island consists chiefly of range of hills, the highest part being about 1000 feet elevated above the sea, consisting of a granitic base with superimposed limestone and quartz rock. In the limestone rock on the N. W. quarter were caves containing many of the swallows, and the edible birds nests.

On the 10th of August they proceeded on their voyage, passing Pulo Pangony—False Pulo Baby and the Brothers—and anchored on the 22nd, and went ashore at Pulo Condore, sailing again on the evening of that day. On the 25th the ship entered the great river of Cambodia, and anchored off the small village of Kam-dew.

On the 28th the envoy having received an invitation to visit the capital (Sy-goon), then the residence of a viceroy, and second only to the king in the kingdom of Cochin-China, departed, attended by one of his suite in large boats provided for the purpose, rowed by from 30 to 50 rowers dressed in scarlet, and wearing singular painted caps over their turbans of of a conical form, surmounted by a cock's feather.

Sy-goon is situated on a noble river in every part free from obstacles, even to ships of considerable size and navigable also beyond the capital which may be reckoned about 50 miles from its mouth. The governor is considered a man of abilities and is much esteemed; and under his enlightened government commerce appears to flourish to a considerable degree. From hence, Hue, the capital of the kingdom, derives its principal supplies of grain; nor can that place contain above half the population here attracted. Amongst the rest there are many Chinese settlers, and some opulent descendants of these people—whilst only a few remain at the capital, and at another town, Fy-Fo, near Turon bay.

Sy-goon is a extensive city on the right bank of the river and has a fortress built in the European manner for its protection. On the 3rd September the envoy having returned to the ship it proceeded towards Turon bay where it cast anchor on the 15th.

On the 21th arrangements having been completed for conveying Mr. Crawfurd and one of his suite, the number permitted to accompany him having been limited by the court, to Hue, they started in the evening in a boat provided for the purpose nearly similar to those sent at Sy-goon. Quitting Turon bay the course lay along the sea coast for about 45 miles, when they entered the river, about 30 miles up which Hue is situated. This river is not navigable but by small junks, not only on account of the bar at its mouth, but from the numerous obstacles and bank during the whole of its course, nevertheless it may be considered a fine river and in the natural beauties of its banks is perhaps excelled by few. Lofty ranges of primitive mountains terminate the distant view, whilst the intervening country consists of low ranges and undulating plains of secondary formation, enlivened by numerous patches of cultivation, adorned with trees, where favourable to their growth, and watered by innumerable mountain streams.

The city of Hue is situated on the left bank of the river and the attention and wonder of the traveller is at once commanded by its extensive magnificent fortification: built of the best masonry, according to European principles and construction, and in a style of excellence hardly exceeded, if equalled, by the finest fort which India possesses either in strength, magnitude, or state of preservation and scarcely yielding in neatness, and internal arrangements. At any rate it is calculated to excite our astonishment in the highest degree, and may be safely said to stand unrivalled amongst works of military nature undertaken and completed by Asiatics. It was the work of the late king. It was in the form of a parallelogram approaching to the square and is stated to be three miles in length. The ramparts are about 30 feet high with a berm at the foot between it and the wet ditch, which is about 40 feet broad, proportionally deep and entirely surrounds the body of the place. It possesses regular outworks, a covert way, and well finished glacis leaning down to the brink of the river, which surrounds the fort on three sides, the fourth being completed by a good canal. The arsenal, magazines and other public buildings are constructed in the same style of excellence.

The arsenal consists of lofty ranges of buildings of solid masonry, and contains a vast number of ordnance of every variety, many pieces are of great magnitude, mostly of exquisite workmanship and principally cast in Cochin-China. Their carriages are equally well constructed, and in good order. The powder magazines are well built, and further protected by a wet ditch. The granaries are also on a magnificent scale, and ranged for convenience along the banks of a canal connected with the river. They are always well supplied with rice chiefly from Ton-quin and Sy-goon. The army is numerous, generally well armed with musquets or lances and dressed in various uniforms. The marine establishment of armed boats from 30 to 50 rowers and mounting small brass swivels is also extensive and well equipped.

The buildings in the town are lower-roomed bungalows, generally comfortable, clean & having tiled roofs; viewing the above splendid works only we might imagine them to have been the result of the enlightened views and liberality of a paternal government. But the truth is sadly the reverse, for the people are oppressed, enslaved, and poor in the greatest degree and the whole wealth and nerve of the empire has been drained to support this splendid bauble, whilst weakness not strength has been the result, for whoever shall secure the capital which can be considered by no means as impregnable, even excluding European science and exterprize, obtains at the same instant the whole kingdom.

The Cochin-Chinese are small in stature, but extremely well made & athletic in their whole form. The countenance is open, and animated, and their manners free and marked with a degree of candour and sincerity not usual in Asiatics, nor are they deficient in courage, though easily alarmed by Europeans, as in all contests with their neighbours they have never failed to shew their marked superiority. Their dress consists of loose trowsers, frock, and turban, the latter usually black and principally of crape.

Although few manufactures flourish here, every thing being as at Siam derived from China and a few articles from Tonquin, it is more from the depressing nature and suspicious jealousy of the government, than from any want of intelligence or energy in the natives, who under a more favourable rule would doubtless rapidly rise to a degree of prosperity which would be alarming to their more debased neighbours.

On the 19th October, Mr. Crawfurd and companion returned to Turon bay by land. The first part of the journey was by a canal leading into an extensive lake connected with the sea. Thence they had to pass two ranges of mountains with finely cultivated intervening valleys thickly studded with large villages, before reaching the high pass leading down to Turon. The whole of these mountains were of primitive formation, and covered with luxuriant lofty forests on a most magnificent scale. On the 31st September they weighed anchor, and got quite clear of the bay next day, with strong winds from the north east.

On the 3rd the ship passed Pulo Sapata, and on the 5th visited the Anamba islands, where they were detained by calms and contrary winds till the 16th. Passing Pulo Timon and Pulo Aor they made the Malacca Straits on the 14th, but did not finally reach Singapore till the 16th where they remained till the evening of the 22nd, sailed on the 23rd and reached Penang on the 2nd December; from this place, they again sailed on the 8th, and after meeting with much contrary winds and calms, got the Pilot on the 27th. and safely entered the Hooghly the next day.

In every apartment of natural history many interestig novelties presented themselves during almost every stage of the Mission's progress; and in the straits of Malacca generally and at Cochin-China the field for botanical investigation was unbounded, and truly magnificent.—*John Bull.*

COCHIN-CHINA.

I visited this interesting country in 1819, but having since had the misfortune to lose the [illegible] of my papers, much interesting matter has escaped my memory. The facts stated as [illegible] may be relied on, and the extraneous matter from other sources has been incorporated with the remarks as necessary to those, whose attention has not been drawn to the very little knowledge extant of this rich and, to us, highly important part of Asia. As an English man I viewed with an inquisitive eye that country, which so few of us have penetrated, and the more so, as I felt convinced that but little is known or suspected of its rising importance in the scale of nations. And if but an item is added to that stock of knowledge, my intention has been amply fulfilled.

H. P———.

We left Batavia in the American ship *Beverly*, Captain Gardner, on the 5th of June, and on the 12th looked into Saigon river, and afterwards Nhiatrary, but finding no interpreters at these places, went on to Turon harbour, where we arrived on the 17th. We found here the French ship *La Rose* of Bordeaux, Captain Hardi, a ship of 700 tons.

A very short visit to them convinced us (the Captain and myself) that it was necessary to pass for an American: the jealousy entertained by the Cochin-Chinese of the English, being one of the earliest subjects of conversation. This was not a pleasant alternative; we were, however, too far to recede, and as, of course, I could not wish the Captain to abandon his speculations to gratify my national feelings, I did so.

By the advice of the gentlemen of *La Rose*, whose conduct towards us was at all times most gentlemanly and obliging, and without any of that little jealousy which too often distinguishes traders when they meet on untrodden grounds, we applied for permission to visit Hue; writing at the same time to M. Vannier, to whom we had letters, and who, we were assured, had great influence at court.

This, as far as we had an opportunity of judging, was no exaggeration.

Our permission arrived in 4 or 5 days, and we left Turon in our own boat with a guide, who was for the purpose of shewing us the entrance, to the river of Hue, which is rather difficult to persons unaccustomed to it; the high land terminates at cape Choumay, and beyond this to where the coast of Tonkin commences, it is a low sandy beach; this is formed by the confluence of the river of Hue with the ocean, and on the delta of this river, about nine miles from its mouth, is the city. At the entrance is a battery of 10 or 12 guns, kept in order, with a flag-staff; here the boat was brought too, our chops strictly examined, as well as that of the guide, who had one from the Mandarin, (I use this word as that generally used amongst us.) At Keuhan, the village at Turon harbour, he was questioned, apparently very particu-

larly, as to our names, which was read to him from the passport, our men were counted, &c. and all these particulars were taken in writing for the purpose, as we were afterwards informed, of being sent to the king. Their accuracy in every thing relative to the public service is remarkable: when our first letter was despatched from Turon, we were surprised to see the Mandarin of the village return the following day on board; we supposed he had already procured an answer, no such thing: the messenger had returned a day's journey, because the Mandarin's report written with indian ink, had blacked our letter, and, said the Mandarin, "I might lose my place for that!"

We passed the night on board *La Henri*, another French ship of 450 tons lying in the river: she had gone from hence on a preceding voyage without cargo, but with a contract with the king for 10,000 muskets, some swords and carbines, which were to be paid for in sugar, and the two ships were here for the purpose of loading it. They experienced, however much trouble in the execution of their contract, many articles being rejected on the most frivolous pretexts and instead of having the sugar delived to them, they were allowed "to procure it themselves!" and lost much time in doing so. Neither of them completed a cargo, nor did their voyages prove advantageous. Captain Rey of the *Henri* has published the remarks made on his two voyages, but I have not seen them. The supercargo of the *Rose* is now, I believe, in Cochin-China. The appearance of the shores of the river from the bar to the town is at first very insipid; they are large flats of sand and mud covered at intervals with grass and reeds, and dividing the river into innumerable branches;* and the view of the sea is entirely shut out by the high sand bank which borders the coast; as the suburbs of the town are approached, the banks become better cultivated, and tufts of plantains and bamboos, sheltering the cottages of the natives, are interspersed: these become more numerous as you advance, and large herds of buffaloes and many elephants are seen in the fields; the river becomes thickly studded with boats of all sizes and kinds: of these they have a vast variety, and amongst them the war gallies and the fan-sail boats of Tonquin are the most remarkable.

When within a short distance of M. Vannier's house, the landscape is highly interesting, and backed by the lofty mountains of the interior and seen beneath the bright glow of an Asiatic sky, may even be termed beautiful.

Messrs. Vannier and Cheznian, the two French Mandarins at the court of Cochin-china are men of 50 years of age, they have both been more than 30 years in the country, and of course possess an intimate acquaintance with the language; they were both junior officers in some of the French ships which visited Cochin-China about the time of Adran's return from his embassy to France: they were assistants and intimates with him, and may be supposed therefore to partake of and understand the views of that enterprising and deserving man: who, in spite of the contemptuous manner in which he has been treated by English writers, was certainly one of those extraordinary characters whose efforts it is impossible to contemplate without admiration, and who had well nigh been the founder of an empire, in Asia, perhaps superior to our own. He is treated as an ambitious priest, who had taken the title of bishop of Cochin-China, &c. When we have learnt to judge of Frenchmen, or rather of all men as we judge of our own countrymen, then we may learn to appreciate their actions independent of the latitude and longitude in which they were born. The spirit of enterprise and daring which we admire in the Ansons and the Clives, the Cooks and the Nelsons of England, is often ambition and meddling in the Poivres, the Labourdanais, and the Adrans of France. Is this because they are Frenchmen? or because they were unfortunate?—the true test is the action, and the burning of Paita or the assassination of the English by Sumroo are alike disgraceful to humanity.

Of Adran it will only be necessary to say that amidst the multiplicity of affairs in which the desperate state of the king's fortunes and his negotiations with the corrupt ministry of the court of France must have involved him, amidst the arduous task of preserving his own ascendancy in the factions of an Asiatic court, and the probable difficulty of managing the adventurers he had brought with him from France, he still found time, not only to educate the young prince, whom he rendered a man of most superior acquirements, but also to translate the most useful articles of the encyclopædia! and to *compose* many treatises for the king's use in the Cochin-Chinese language!

* The mark for going up to the city is to keep the right hand shore on board the whole way.

He died in about 1804 or 5, adored by the natives, and beloved by the few of his countrymen who survived. They interred him with all the pomp they could display according to their ritual: but when they had finished, the king, as a last tribute of respect, performed the most splendid obsequies ever witnessed in the country, and built a mausoleum over his remains at Saigon, at which the same ceremonies are annually performed as at the tombs of his ancestors. His proudest title to our respect remains to be cited, and that is, that while all around him was war and violence, while he wielded, almost uncontrolled, the resources of an empire, no act of injustice or oppression was ever laid to his charge. Adran was the friend of peace & humanity, at 14 years from his death the natives still speak of him with tears* in their eyes, and to have been his countryman is still a passport amongst a nation of barbarians.

I return from this digression. Messrs. V. and C. are high in the confidence of the king Caung-Shung (or Nguy-en-Shang as he is called in the EDINBURGH REVIEW of M. de la Bessachire's work.) They have the rank of mandarins, attend his council daily, and are consulted by him on every occasion, particularly on those relative to foreign affairs, in which he is said to be entirely guided by them. M. Vannier has a seniority, I believe, in rank at court: he has a reserved manner about him, which is very unusual in a Frenchman. M. Cheznian, on the contrary, has the frank gentlemanly urbanity, which distinguishes the Frenchman of the old school; neither of them are rich, or indeed in more than competent circumstances. M. Cheznian has, since I visited that country, made a voyage to France, and returned with the title of Consul: his son, a fine youth of 16, who, though born in Cochin-China, has the manners and gentlemanly address of his father, accompanied him.

Both Messrs. V. and C. have several children by native women: during our stay at Hue, we lived at M. Vannier's house, and experienced from these gentlemen every attention and assistance which they could bestow on us: there is another Frenchman resident here, [illegible] Dayon, he is a man of no consideration, and is supported solely by the other two: he has also some paltry medical employment about the king's person.

Caung-Shung the (then†) reigning monarch of Cochin-China, having reconquered his hereditary dominions, Cochin-China and Cambodia, and added Tonquin to them, exercises an unlimited sway over this vast country. He is described by Messrs. V. and C. as a man of most acute and penetrating genius, shrewd, quick and decisive, ambitious and restless, always intent on schemes of military improvement or of aggrandisement, (though age has rather cooled his ardour for conquest,) indefatigable in the discharge of his public duties: seeing, hearing, ordering, every thing himself, taking but 5 hours rest out of 24, and being at no time more than 8 absent from business; such indeed is his activity and intelligence that he is compared by them to Napoleon, no small compliment from a Frenchman.

Of his politics, so short a visit and so confined a sphere of observation as mine necessarily was, can enable me to say but very little—A keen and vigilant jealousy of the British, fanned and nursed by French influence, and unfortunately confirmed by one or two oversights on our part, is the most prominent feature in it; he has said, "that he fears no power in Asia but the British." This, I have no doubt, is the fact; the coast from Saigon to Tonquin is lined with beacons, which are *said* to be placed there for the purpose of alarming the coast should an English fleet appear off it. At Saigon and Turon the scrutiny of his officers was most surprisingly exact as to the nature of our vessel, her guns, &c. all of which was taken in writing, nor is this to be wondered at, when we recollect the very predominant influence of the French in that country. Another Adran, and France yet possesses such men, would give them an influence in that quarter which might cause us much trouble: Their college in Tonquin, consisting of a Bishop and 2 or 3 Missionaries, is a step towards this, and to it we may add that other missionaries are to be sent to them.

The French indeed do not make a secret of their wishes; they are straining every nerve, though covertly, to procure a footing in this country, and bitterly lament their present disability to do so; as individuals, they of course are fearful of venturing in a country in which

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* This is a fact, and happened to the writer of these remarks.

† 1819. He died in 1820, or 21. He is the same with whom Adran's famous treaty was made, and it is said that on his death-bed his last advice to his son was, "Cherish the French by every means in your power, but never concede a foot of ground to them or to any other European Power!"

are no laws but the will of the great; and they dread the state of the country at the death of Caung-Shung, who it appears is attached to one of his sons to such a degree, that he wished to place him on the throne to the prejudice of the legitimate successor, and this they feared might involve the two parties in a war at his death. The son educated by Adran is dead, having been killed in the command of one of his father's armies at the last battle fought against the rebels in 1808 or 9.

That an establishment there on a future day is contemplated there appears to me good reason for supposing; the ships sent out were peculiarly patronised by the French minister (de la Marme), and great care was taken that every article of their cargo, particularly arms, were of a good quality; they certainly were so, for I had an opportunity of examining many of them; the presents were described to us as superb, but we did not see any of these.

On the 3rd day after our arrival, we visited the mandarin of the strangers, for the purpose of procuring a pass for permission to trade to Saigon, whither we had determined to go. We visited him three times on the same account, and after making him presents to the amount of about 3000 dollars, obtained our permission.

His house is within the city which stands on an island formed by two branches of the river about a mile above M. Vannier's house.

This city is in itself a striking proof of the immense resources which the king commands, and of his genius in conceiving and executing with only Cochin-Chinese artificers, so vast an undertaking. It was commenced in 1813 or 14, and will be finished in 20. It is a square 5 or 6 miles in circumference, fortified according to the rules of European fortification, the plan being an imitation of a chef d'œuvre of Vauban's, (the city of Strasburgh, I believe). It has 24 bastions, each mounting 36 pieces of cannon from 18 to 68 pdrs. all cast in his own founderies. Capt. Rey, who had seen them, assured me they were beautiful guns, (he is a naval officer) and so well cast that he could scarcely believe them to have been made in the country, more particularly as they had imitated to great exactness the arms, fleurs de lys, &c. which were on the French guns, which served them as models.

The ramparts are about 50 feet high, of great thickness, with bomb proof casemates, magazines, &c. The gates of heavy blocks of hewn stone, are at least 60 feet high, and to the vane of the building over them at least 120 feet: over each gate are tablets of black marble with inscriptions in letters of gold. The ditch is at least 100 feet wide, faced with brick, and of a proportional depth; the glacis, covered ways (or ziz-zag roads leading from the gates, for I am not certain of the propriety of the term), are faced and coped with hewn stone, the esplanade or slope towards the river the same. Over each gate is a house of two stories, well tiled and varnished, the vanes are of polished brass. The interior of the city corresponds with the exterior, large streets cross it from gate to gate, and in the centre is to be built the citadel which is to be more lofty and more magnificent; we did not see it, though its foundations were said to be laid, as we were conducted from our boat direct to the house of the mandarin which was near the gate; and though strictly charged and advised to make no observation of any kind,* I contrived to make a pocket book sketch.

I return to the interior: there is a beautiful row of trees round the inside of the ramparts, which, while it keeps the houses at a great distance from them, forms a noble walk, and at equal distances are flights of stone steps for troops, and slopes for guns; in short, the whole is a most splendid work; the design, the beautiful finish, the massy solidity and scientific regularity of it are truly astonishing, and when compared with the miserable huts of Nhiatary and Turon, and the despicable appearance of the Cochin-Chinese, would almost appear a tale of exchantment. We could not, indeed, give credit to the accounts of the French gentlemen of the *Rose* and *Henri*, but when we had seen it, our ideas, we found, had fallen far short of it. I had seen other fortifications, such as Fort William and Manilla, but for imposing appearance, they fall for short of the city of Hue.

His naval force is not less extraordinary, as to the qualities of design, finish and extent. He had then building on the banks of the river before the town, as an amusement or whim

* Their accurate system of surveillance even of the French is amusingly exact, and reminded us of Japan; the following is an instance. The Officers of the *Henri* while in the river, took an artificial horizon on shore to regulate their Chronometer and the next day in Council the King told Messrs. Vannier and Cheznian that "they were taking a map of the country," and desired that they might desist.

50 schooners of 14 guns each (there is not water for larger vessels); we passed between two of them, going from the boat to the gate; the bottoms are beautiful French models, but the upper works, poop and forecastle, are Cochin-Chinese, (he lamented to Messrs. Vannier and Cheznian that the prejudices of his people obliged him to make them so); the plank and the timbers are of fine teak, and the workmanship excellent; they were actively employed on them when we were there, having great numbers of men at work, which, together with those on the fortifications (from 50 to 80,000 men,) long files of labourers carrying planks, elephants in great numbers, piles of stones, bricks, forges, worksheds, &c. formed a scene of which those only who have seen it can form an adequate idea, (and a dock-yard was not a new sight to me.) The regularity and order of this scene was not less remarkable; the noise of hammers and workmen was deafening, but all were employed; there were no idlers, and as far as the eye could reach to the yet unfinished bastions of the works, the same busy activity and swarms of workmen were to be seen.

On the banks of the river, lower down, he has 80 vessels of the same description, but built to carry a heavy gun in the bow, and 6 or 8 smaller ones; they are also fine vessels, from 100 to 150 tons, well built and of great strength. M. Vannier's account of them is that they were built as a whim or amusement about 7 or 8 years ago, and after being afloat for some time were hauled up; they are under sheds about a mile below M. Vannier's house.

The king has also a floating palace in which he then resided; it resembled an immense budgerow; we passed within a short distance of it, but could see but very little of it, as it is moored in an inclosure of large bamboos in the middle of the river, in a part of it where the diverging of some branches forms a large sheet of water; it has amongst other singularities a European foremast; this fancy struck him after a visit on board Captain Rey's ship; he proposed to visit the *Rose* off the bar, but was prevented from doing so by bad weather. Several [illegible]s were anchored near it, and on the opposite shore a large fleet of state [illegible], whose high sterns appeared one sheet of gold from the quantity of gilding upon [illegible] form they resembled much those of our earlier attempts in navigation, of which plates are given in Charnock's naval architecture, that is, the sterns; we passed several of the war-gallies apparently exercising; they are stout vessels of 80 or 100 tons, pulling about the same number of oars. We did not see the first of the state gallies, these being laid up with great care for solemn occasions; one of them is said to have nearly 50 lbs. of gold on her in ornaments; she was taken from the rebels, and is preserved as a trophy.

His naval force may be estimated as follows:—50 schooners of 14 guns, nearly finished, —80 gun-boats, laid up,—100 vessels of various sizes, laid up and unserviceable,—about 300 gallies, from 80 to 100 oars,—500 gallies of from 40 to 80, including the state gallies; —in the provinces 500 vessels from 20 to 100 oars,—making about 1530 vessels, of which perhaps two-thirds may be, on an emergency, rendered serviceable in a short time. There are certainly more than 1000 large vessels, and we must remember that he can at all times command the fishing and trading craft, with which the coasts of the country swarm.

Of his military force, I can say but very little; he has not a great number of regular troops, and in case of war every man is a soldier: he contemplated organising an army on a more respectable footing, for which he procured the muskets, &c.

The garrison of the city in war is to be 50,000 men, for the purpose of holding the northern provinces and Tonquin in check, should his presence be required in the southern ones; he has also a brigade of trained elephants.

He is said to possess a well-filled treasury: the mines of gold and silver in the interior are, as well as those of other metals, all royal property, and only wrought for his use; they are said to be very rich. His magnificent works cost him nothing but the pay of his officers, and the maintenance of a few select workmen; for by the regulations which are established, and which are strictly enforced, about one-third of all the manual labour of the empire belongs to him! This is almost incredible, but a fact; the materials, the carriage of them, the labour of making, delivering and receiving them, is besides all tribute, or rather extortion, for the people of this country groan in an Egyptian bondage; being literally obliged to make bricks without straw, and even to cultivate and deliver the whole of the coarse sugar with which the fortifications are cemented; in short, his government appears to be the most perfect despotism under the sun, and the state of the people the most abject slavery; of this the

proofs were not few, which even within our limited sphere we had occasion to remark. I shall mention one:—The mandarin of Keu Han having visited us and received some trifling presents, was anxious to testify his gratitude, which he did by sending his boat to take the finest fish from the fishing boats near us, and make us a present of them.! This is but one of many instances. The king's reason, for example, for not encouraging commerce is the true spirit of despotism: "*They would grow rich and be insolent,*" said he, when pressed on this subject by Messrs. Vannier and Cheznian, which might be rendered by "Let all be miserable except myself." The officer who fails to deliver the tribute of his district at the day and hour appointed, infallibly loses his head; and a mistake of 5 in the census of a large village incurs the same penalty; while with this severity, so great is his accuracy in minor affairs, he has, (amongst a thousand other instances of the same nature) an officer whose daily duty it is to sound on the bar of the river to report any alteration in its position, and who is personally responsible should any accident occur to the king's boat.

It were absurd to offer any remarks on the character of this people as mine: those which follow are collected principally from conversations with Messrs. Vannier and Cheznian: unless where otherwise designated.

Such of the nobility as we had an opportunity of seeing, as well as those with whom the French had any dealings, were of one uniform character of cringing meanness with us, and insolent pride in office, stooping even to ask for presents, and scarcely noticing our request when preferred; of our notions of delicacy, or even of decency, in transacting affairs, they appeared to have no idea; they would take, for example, a fowling-piece or a piece of silk from the Frenchman's warehouse, and having kept them a week or ten days, send them back, rusted and soiled, saying "they did not want them." This was a natural consequence of their habit of thinking and acting, for, accustomed from childhood to have no will but their own to consult, they could not apparently imagine that there was any injustice in appropriating to their fancies the property of another; but it forms a fearful index to the condition of those who, oppressed by all, could look to none for redress, and a just criterion by which to estimate those countries, when the palace is all splendour and the cottage all misery. Such is, as far as we could ascertain, the present state of this rich and interesting country. Their huts are too often the receptacles of filth and misery! and perhaps to their state of civil polity may be traced their decided preference to maritime pursuits, because in them the fruits of their industry, though more precarious and more laborious, are less exposed to "the hand of the spoiler."

'They are more perhaps than any other people under such a system of government entitled to the character of mildness; a single fact will illustrate this. Messrs. Vannier and Cheznian, in thirty years residence in the country, have known but of three murders wilfully committed, and when we recollect the epoch at which this fact is stated, (while a sanguinary civil war was waging) it must at least be thought a singular claim to this title; from what cause this mildness proceeded, whether it was rather the apathy of misery than the kindness of good will towards each other, I cannot pretend to determine; from the little we saw and heard, in our dealings with them, we found them always mild, but ready to take every advantage of our inexperience and ignorance of the language in bargaining, but never offering even an insolent gesture; on the contrary, an attempt at a joke, or the stammering a few words of the language appeared to please them highly. Travelling amongst them is so safe that the French gentlemen, who often went overland from Turon to Hue, never thought of taking arms, except as a defence against wild beasts; at their house at Faifo, when they were collecting sugar, they were once alarmed by a thief, but though he was, I think, taken, no attempt at resistance was made, and we were assured that from Saigon to Hue, it was equally safe to travel as in the vicinity of the capital.

Punishment of death, though so frequently held "in terrorem", we were informed, was very seldom necessary; when inflicted they are supported invariably with a degree of firmness bordering on apathy: this appears not to be uncommon amongst half-civilised and savage nations, and its cause would be a curious inquiry, when we recollect the usual mass of superstitious terrors with which they contrive to surround themselves.

I return to the more immediate subject of this paper. The king, had he lived, appeared to be making rapid strides to an important rank amongst eastern potentates; it was said

that he proposed attacking Siam: he had, however, not made warlike preparations; he had already the hydrostatic press, and had ordered from France a steam-engine, models of mills, forges, bridges &c.

These things were called there his whims and ornaments: they may be so, but when we recollect what he has done it behoves us to keep a watchful eye on a country where French influence is so predominant, lest one or two more whims should renew the treaty of 1787.

How well the king feels his own importance may be gathered from the following circumstance:— *La Cybele*, the first frigate sent by Louis XVIII. into their seas, visited Cochin-China in 1817; she was commanded by the Compte de Kergarion* who thought proper to announce himself as an Ambassador from the King of France. An embassy from France (said M. Vannier,) put us all in motion; a large fleet of gallies was fitted out and every preparation made to do honour to it. The king himself intended going to receive the letter (to which *they* attach more importance than to the Ambassador,) but in the mean time he dispatched M. Vannier to compliment the envoy and learn the preliminaries of his business. To his astonishment he found that the whole was a gasconade! and of course made his report to the king accordingly, who was highly incensed at it. "What (said he in council) did this man take us for a parcel of barbarians, amongst whom he might do as he pleased? if *my brother* the king of France had sent me an embassy, he would have sent me *a letter*, and not by the hand of such a man." An order was issued, and rigorously enforced, that *La Cybele* should be supplied with every necessary, but that not one of her officers should be allowed to visit the city, and this continued in force while she remained there.

We left Turon for Saigon, having procured our permission to trade, which cost us about 600 dollars, and sailed for that place, but found it impossible to beat to the southward farther than just at the sight of Pulo Sapata, and in consequence, bore up for Manilla, where we arrived in August 1819. (*Calcutta Journal, January* 1823.)

TRADE OF SIAM.

Any thing relating to the late Mission to the eastward, must, I presume, be peculiarly interesting to every part of the community. The natural situation of the countries it visited, the great facilities afforded to commerce by their numerous and excellent harbors, the nature of their products, and the recollection of the extent of the trade carried on with them during the earlier periods of our intercourse with India, all tend to encrease this feeling and to point them out as wide fields for the extension of our trade and the exercise of our commercial enterprize. Most of these advantages have been lost in the course of years, and even almost forgotten. Many have been the assertions, and those too backed by what would appear to be the very best authorities, that such is the jealousy of the nations between Siam and China, that Europeans could never conduct a trade with them. Recent circumstances connected with the late mission, however, have proved this doctrine to be an utter fallacy. I shall not now, however, enter upon this subject, but shall only point out the nature and value of their several productions, and then give a list of the places with which the English used to conduct a flourishing trade, almost the whole of which they have now lost in consequence of their own imprudence in interfering with the affairs of the government of these countries or by their intemperance in their dealings with the natives.

Beginning with Siam, which is perhaps the most productive of them, I shall pass on to the eastward, and notice such places as may be worthy of it in the *order in which they occur*. Besides the *Me-nam*, or great river of *Siam*, there are two smaller ones, called from the principal towns on them *Ta-chin* and *Meck-long*. These are not navigable except for small craft and like the *Me-nam* have bars at their entrances. The jealousy of the Siamese government, however, even if they were navigable, would prevent our nation from deriving any benefit from them, and I believe they are not even open to the Chinese. The bar at the entrance of the *Me-nam* is not so dangerous as it has been represented, and *no danger whatever* exists for

* Who is now confined in a state of derangement in France.

vessels of 300 tons, (although this is rather too large) at spring tides. After having passed the bar, there is an extensive mud flat. There would be no danger in a ship taking the ground on this, or even remaining on it for days together, as at low water she would sink in the mud, and as the tides rose she would again float. Having fairly entered the river, there is no longer any danger. Ships may anchor quite close to the shore in 4 or 5 fathoms, any where between its mouth and the capital. At this latter place it is about the width of the *Ganges* at *Calcutta*. It is safely navigable all the way up to *Ayuthia* the old capital, and small vessels may even ascend it as far as *Lao (Laos)*. Having said thus much of the excellence of the port of *Bang kok*, it is time that I should say something of the products of the country. The principal of these is *sugar*, the present amount of which is very large, but which may be increased indefinitely with the demand. It is produced almost every where in the kingdom, under the direction of the Chinese settlers. Its quality, which yields to that of no sugar in the world, is too well known for me to enlarge on it in this place. The principal part of it is sent to China, and the Americans have lately taken away several ship-loads of it. Some of the English and Portuguese ships which have lately visited it have taken it as a return cargo.

The *rice* of *Siam* is equally famed with its sugar. This is produced in immense quantities all along the banks of the river in a rich alluvial soil, irrigated by the waters of the *Menam*. The exportation of this article is prohibited, notwithstanding which it finds its way to Singapore and other parts in the Straits. At Singapore I once had an opportunity of seeing the rice of *Manilla, Java, Bengal Cochin-China, Siam* and *Queda*, all exhibited at the same time, and if I recollect right that of *Siam* was pronounced to be superior to all the rest.

In a country like *Siam, salt* of course is produced in great abundance.

Teak-wood of the same quality with that brought from *Rangoon* is found in great abundance. It is produced in the vast forests which divide the Burman from the Siamese empire.

Benjamin of the very best quality is another costly product of *Siam*. It is found in the northern provinces and in *Lao (Laos)*. This article is a gum which exudes from a tree. That which is produced in *Siam* is all of that quality denominated *head* in the language of commerce.

Agila-wood, or *lignum aloes*, is an article of great consumption as a perfume among the natives of eastern Asia, who use it in all their funeral, marriage, and other ceremonies. It is the diseased part of a tree, and perhaps is only to be found in *one* tree in twenty, and in that *one* only in a very small quantity. The laborers employed in finding it frequently cut up several trees before they find the smallest portion of it. It is principally found in the islands situated in the gulf of Cambodia.

Pepper is produced in large quantities in the eastern parts of the empire. The great emporium for this article is *Chantibun* in the gulf of *Kamboja*. A great quantity is sent from this place to *Siam*, from whence it afterwards reaches *China*.

Cardamums are procured at the same place as pepper. These are an uncultivated article, and those of *Kamboja*, esteemed the best in the world, find a ready market at most exorbitant prices in *China*.

Among the metallic products of the Siamese empire, are *lead, iron* and *tin*: I do not remember the precise locality of the first. *Iron* is found in the northern parts of the kingdom, and is of a pretty good quality. *Tin* is produced in great abundance in the Malay states tributary to *Siam*. This is an article so well known as not to require any remark.

I have thus given you a sketch of the principal articles, the produce of Siam, and I am convinced that no one will be bold enough to assert that if due encouragement, or rather facility were given by the government of that country to foreign commerce, that it could not be conducted with the greatest advantage to our merchants.—In such an extent of country, containing a population of from 5 to 6,000,000, it is evident that there must be a great and extensive consumption of our manufactures, and I can assure you that they are consumed there, after incurring the additional charges, necessarily attending their freight on the junks from *Penang, Malacca* and *Singapore* and on native vessels from *Surat*. Some of them even go from our ports to *Canton* and afterwards find their way *on the junks* from thence to *Siam*. There cannot be the slightest doubt that the Chinese possess facilities for carrying on this trade which Europeans do not. These people in foreign commercial affairs are shrewd, keen

and intelligent, but in other respects, supple and complying. They excite no jealousy in the country in which they are settled, because they yield to its manners and even to its religion with the utmost subserviency. It is not desirable that we *should* possess privileges purchased at this rate, but I am convinced that if once the Siamese government could be convinced of the sincerity of our intentions, and the advantages to be derived from our friendship, and divested of some portion of the natural jealousy of its character, they would willingly admit us to a participation in the privileges of the Chinese, and even court a closer connection with us. A TRAVELLER. (*Calcutta Journal, February 6,* 1823.)

COCHIN-CHINA.

I have, on one or two occasions, troubled you with communications relative to the countries to the eastward. Some of them have been dull, but I am willing to flatter myself none of them have been *entirely* without interest. On this occasion, in order to afford amusement to some of your lighter readers, on a subject on which they cannot fail to feel a particular interest, I beg to trouble you with this epistle on the subject of the marriages, personal appearance, and dress of the Cochin-Chinese.

In the first place, I must premise, that in the article of beauty the Cochin-Chinese are perfect philosophers, and consider a strong, healthy, serviceable woman to be very far preferable to a delicate, beautiful one, inasmuch as the former is able to endure a greater degree of personal labor than the latter. But to begin, a wife is only to be procured by purchase in Cochin-China, and the age at which a man gets married depends upon his means for accomplishing this object. Thus a poor man may live in "single blessedness" until he is 30, while a rich one may "take unto himself a wife" at 15. As to the ladies' age, it is generally somewhere between 17 and 25. Polygamy is allowed, and a man who can afford to buy a great number of wives is limited only by his means of doing so. Most individuals, however, are satisfied with the *moderate* number of *ten*. The better orders when they buy wives, frequently give from 2 to 400 rupees each, but among the lower orders from 60 to 80, and even as low as 20 rupees is sometimes given. In this country the fair sex is very hardly used, "their lords and masters," perhaps not so much from choice as from necessity, forcing them to undertake the most fatiguing tasks and the most oppressive details of labor. The fact is, that all men, being soldiers, are obliged to serve in the army for the greater part of their time, and during their absence, their "helpmates," are even obliged to support them altogether. When I say *soldier*, I use the word in the extended sense which the Cochin-Chinese apply to it. According to their notions, a soldier is a servant of all work, he is a builder, a sailor, a menial servant, a palanquin-bearer, an artizan, a letter-carrier, and in short, is engaged in service of all descriptions. They sweep the houses, fetch the water, and perform all sorts of offices about the houses of the chiefs. Every man is liable to be thus employed from 15 to 60 years of age, and thus it is that the whole of the labor falls upon their wives. Accordingly, we find that the women are the shop-keepers and hawkers, they fish, and they plough, and in many parts of the kingdom the wages of a woman are higher than those of a man. The ladies, for *their* parts, knowing what they have to trust to if they marry one of their own countrymen, prefer the Chinese, who do not oblige them to perform these laborious offices, but do them themselves instead. Notwithstanding the women are thus-useful to their husbands in Cochin-China, they enjoy but few privileges. Their husbands have the right of punishing them to any extent they think fit, short of putting them to death, and frequently beat them inhumanly. Surely in a state where the sex is so highly useful as in Cochin-China, we may expect something different from this.

The persons of these people are rather singular. Their color is not so dark as that of the Malays or Siamese, and not so fair as that of the Chinese. They are far from being a handsome set of men, but are strong and fit for labor. The women are much fairer than the men, shorter, and of a better shape. Some of them, particularly the descendants of Chinese fathers, are nearly as fair as Europeans, and their features are regular and pleasing. Their arms and hands as well formed, and the former are real models of beauty. Both sexes how-

ever disfigure themselves by the immoderate use of betel, and by blackening their teeth, which is esteemed a great mark of beauty.

The dress of both sexes is nearly alike, and consists generally of a loose vest, with a pair of large, long, and loose trowsers. The men commonly wear two or more vests one over the other, the lower one invariably of some cotton stuff, and the upper one of gauze or silk flowered. These are generally of a black, blue or violet color, reaching down to the hips, with long sleeves covering the hands. The pantaloons are sometimes white, and sometimes colored, made after the Chinese fashion. The vest of the women is longer, and they frequently wear as many as three or four of them, of which the longest is the under one, gradually decreasing in length, to the upper one which is the shortest.

Both sexes wear small purses or bags of silk, in shape something like a lady's reticule, for the purpose of containing their betel and tobacco, which, as before mentioned, they use abundantly.—These are generally in pairs, tied together by a long string, and one is thrown over each shoulder. They wear turbans of black crape or cloth, and when they go out, large hats of palm leaves or rice straw, which keep off the sun and rain. They wear their long hair tied up in a knot behind, and not in the ridiculous form of a tail, like the Chinese. Neither in their manners, habits, or persons are they cleanly people. Their bodies are commonly filthy in the extreme, and among the lower classes covered with vermin. Their under garment, which is usually made of cotton, is never washed, although occasionally dipped into water, and is very seldom changed. These are commonly worn in the house, and when they go out they put a silk dress on over them, and thus, by a shew of finery, hide their real filth.

The Cochin-Chinese are a lively, good humoured people, they are great laughers and talkers, and use many gestures in their conversation. For this reason and because of the natural politeness which they possess in far greater degree than any other Asiatic people with whom I am acquainted, they have been called the "French of the east," a term which they richly deserve, if the qualities above mentioned are the invariable standard characteristics of Frenchmen. A TRAVELLER (*Calcutta Journal, February* 8, 1823.)

TRADE OF CAMBOJA.

In my last letter but one, I gave you an account of the trade of Siam, and in this I will endeavour to give you some account of that of Kamboja. In point of fact, Kamboja itself cannot be said to have any trade of its own, it being almost entirely merged in that of Siam or Cochin-China, to which countries it is almost entirely subject. Some of the principal and choicest articles of the trade of these countries are the produce of Kamboja, some of which I forgot to mention. Among these is Gamboge, which is a gum which exudes from a tree, said to be of considerable size. Incisions are made in the bark of the tree, and the gum runs into bamboo tubes.

Having in my former letter described the trade of Siam, it seems to me that nothing in addition can be said of that of Kamboja, but much may be said of its ports, some of which are very fine.—One of the principal of these is Chantibun, containing but 30,000 inhabitants, and the grand emporium for pepper and cardamums. This place is tributary to Siam, to which it sends the greater portion of the articles beforementioned as tribute. The annual quantity of pepper sent to Bankok from hence, is said to amount to 30,000 piculs. From Siam it is principally sent to China. Chantibun is situated a short distance up a river navigable only for small boats, and the vessels employed in the carrying trade between it and Siam are principally of from 300 to 1000 piculs burthen. If I recollect right, from 300 to 400 vessels are annually employed in this trade.

Kang-kao or Athien is the next considerable place, and this is the frontier town of Cochin-China. Its products are the same as those of Chantibun, and its population nearly equal. Like it, too, it is situated on a small river only navigable for small vessels, but its trade is far less considerable than that of that place. Near to it once stood the most populous town on the coast, called Potiamat, which was burned by the Siamese in the course of their contests with that people for the sovereignty of Kamboja. There are many other places on the

coast, all of which carry on a greater or less trade with Siam. The principal of these are *Nakon-wat*, *Nung-ka-bin*, and just on the point of Kamboja, *Kamao*. The people settled in this place are Cochin-Chinese and not Kambojans.

The whole of the coast from this last point quite up to what is called by the Siamese *Lem Sam-me-san*, the cape *Liant* of Europeans, is an uninterrupted Archipelago of beautiful islands. *Pulo Uri*, the most easterly is but a small island, six miles long.—I had an opportunity of landing on it, and found a family of Cochin-Chinese and two or three Chiness who had settled here for the purpose of procuring the sea-slug which abounds on its coasts. Their hut was miserable, and a little cultivated ground near it producing a few sweet potatoes, constituted the whole of their wealth. In it was a figure of a Chinese deity, and a number of tablets, containing the names of the junks which had touched at it for some time. They commonly stop here for a day or two on their way from China to Siam, for the purpose of procuring fresh water, of which the island contains an abundant supply. Previous to sailing it is their custom to consult the before mentioned deity as to whether they shall prosecute their voyage or not. This is done in the following manner. A book is prepared, in which a number of sentences are written and numbered. A similar number of small pieces of sticks are prepared with correspondent numbers on them. These are placed in a hollow bamboo and shaken until one of them falls out; the number of the pieces of wood is then compared with the corresponding motto, and according as this latter is favourable or otherwise, the junks pursue their voyage or wait until they obtain a more favourable answer.

It would be useless to call your attention to all the islands scattered along this coast and the head of the gulf. I will only therefore mention one nearly 36 miles long, and containing a population of 2 or 3000. This is called by the natives *Fo-kwak*, and is famed for the production of the Aquila wood. On its shores is a very extensive fishery of the sea-slug, the *over-falls* which abound here being its favorite resort. The fishermen stand at the head of the boat and spear the fish, and so great is their dexterity that they seldom miss their aim. The poor people inhabiting this island are principally Cochin-Chinese, but there are a few Kambojans and Chinese.

The kingdom of Kamboja itself is divided into three parts, one of which is tributary to Siam and a second to Cochin-China, while the third is independent. The two former comprize all the sea coast, and the third is several days journey up the great river of that name. Its capital is *Panopin*, and it is said to contain a considerable population, among whom are some Chinese. In one of the neighbouring provinces called *Champa*, which is entirely surrounded by people professing the Buddhist religion, in a very considerable mahomedan population, who speak a dialect of the Malay, and who, strange to say, are the ruling power.

A TRAVELLER. (*Calcutta Journal, Feburary* 11, 1823.)

TRADE OF COCHIN-CHINA.

Having given you some account of the trade of Siam and Kamboja, I now proceed to continue the subject by giving you one of that of Cochin-China. The principal places of resort for vessels in this kingdom are, *Sai-gun*, *Fai-fu*, *Turon* or *Han*, *Hue*, and *Cai-cheo*, *(Cachao)* in Tonquin. Of these the most westerly is *Sai-gun*, which is situated about 50 miles up one of the finest rivers in the world, quite free from any danger. At the mouth of it is a small village called *Kandyu*, opposite to which ships are expected to anchor untill permission is obtained to proceed to Sai-gun which will probably occupy three days. When permission is obtained and the ship arrives at Sai-gun, she is anchored nearly opposite the fort. Sai-gun consists of two parts, one called Sai-gun and the other Ping-hi. It is opposite the latter that ships are anchored, and it is in the latter that the Chinese merchants live. Many of these are very respectable and wealthy men, and would be most happy to carry on a trade with us. These two parts of the town are connected with each other by a navigable river and by an excellent road.

Fai-fo is the port to which the Chinese junks principally resort, and it is here that in four months of the year, a very considerable fair is held at the time that they visit it. The population of Chinese residing here generally amounts to 6000, but at the time that they are there, it amounts to 3 or 4 times that number.

Han or Turon is but a small village and is principally famed for its noble bay, in which a large fleet may safely ride at anchor sheltered from all winds. Turon is itself a neat pretty, clean village, and several others are scattered along the shores of the bay, which is entirely surrounded with high mountains, presenting every variety of light and shade. Turon communicates with Fai-fu, from which it is about 40 miles distant by a creek, and is most probably the best anchoring place for vessels trading to the latter place.

Hue, is the capital of Cochin-China, and the residence of the court. It is situated about seven miles up a river, which is not navigable to any distance. At the mouth of the river is a bar, on which the water, if I recollect right, never exceeds thirteen feet. At the mouth of the river is a small fort and village, opposite to which a French ship anchored in 1819. The banks of the river are pretty closely peopled, and altho' the soil is not very fertile, it is well cultivated. Hue itself is on the right bank, and extends a considerable way along it. The fort at this place is a most masterly piece of workmanship, and reflects great credit on the individuals who planted it, as well as those who built it. It is, however, a painful reflection that the splendid edifice has been constructed by the forced labor and contributions of the people, many of whom have died of the fatigue undergone in the operation. In this country all public works are constructed in this manner, and the government having a right to a third share of every man's labor, takes care that little respite shall be given to the laborer, who, if he shrinks from the duty assigned him by his hard task-masters, is amply rewarded with the bastinado; yet such is the character of the people, that they appear to make quite light of it and to consider it as a matter of course.

Kai-cheo, or as it is commonly called Cachao, is a very considerable place in Tonquin. Little is known of it, however, to Europeans, as none of them have lately visited it. It is situated on a fine large river, the mouth of which, like those of many Indian rivers, is so blocked up with sand banks that it would be unsafe for a vessel of more than 200 tons burthen to attempt to enter it. Many Chinese junks however frequent it from Canton and other ports to the northward, and British broad cloths, cottons and Bengal opium find their way by this channel to the Chinese provinces of Yu-nan, and Kwang-sai. Tea is an article which is also brought from Canton in large quantities for the consumption of the Chinese settlers, who are said to amount to 60,000 souls.

The trade of the other places in Cochin-China are all nearly alike. The junks come to them from Canton, Fo-kien, Su-chao, from the ports in the large province of Kiang-nan and Che-kiang, as well from those ports from which the trade to Japan is conducted. They bring with them principally trifling articles, such as paper, medicine, coarse China-ware, and some of the other common articles of Chinese manufacture.

Cochin-China produces sugar of a good quality and in considerable quantity, and which may be encreased to any extent. It is grown throughout the whole of the kingdom, but principally in the central provinces.

Cinnamon is the most costly product of Cochin-China, and is an uncultivated article. It has a very pungent taste, and is far more aromatic than that of Ceylon.—There are several qualities of it, some of which bear a most exorbitant price, and are solely appropriated for the royal use. It is none of it *barked*, that it is to say, the outer rind is not taken off it. It is in high demand among the Chinese, who export large quantities of it, and who perfer it to the best cinnamon of Ceylon.

Raw silk is produced throughout the whole kingdom, and is of a good quality, its principal fault consisting in the imperfect manner in which it is wound, which is not well suited to our machinery. This however may be easily altered, and would no doubt be attended to by the Cochin-Chinese, if they found that such attention would facilitate its sale.

A TRAVELLER. (*Calcutta Journal February* 14, 1823.)

MALAY PENINSULA.

This portion of India, since the conclusion of the late convention with the Netherland government, may be said to be virtually under the protection of our nation and it therefore assumes, in respect to us, a degree of importance which belonged to it in no former period. Viewing it in this light, we proceed without hesitation to offer a brief statistic notice of it.

Geographically considered, the Peninsula of Malacca ought to be described as including the whole of the narrow land lying south of a line drawn from the head of the gulf of Siam to the eastern shore of the bay of Bengal, or from between the 13th and 14th degrees of north latitude, to very near the 1st degree; that is, to Cape Romania the southern extremity of the Continent of Asia. Its civil and political extent, however, is much narrower, including only what is in the occupation of the Malayan nation and which goes no further north than the 7th degree of latitude. Its extreme length may be reckoned about 450 geographical miles, and its extreme breadth, which is about the middle, about 150, but which, at its northern extremity, is little more than half that amount, and at its southern is as little as 40 miles. It contains an area of about 48,000 square miles, being therefore somewhat less than Java which is estimated at 50,000. The Malayan Peninsula may generally be described as a mountainous and hilly region, destitute of extensive vallies or plains. A range of primitive mountains, low towards the southern extremity, but towards the north, rising in several situations, to the height of 5 and 6,000 feet, may be said to run along its whole length. Down to the 3rd degree of N. latitude the geological formation is universally, as far as observation has extended, primitive, consisting in some situations of quartz but more generally of an old and highly crystalized granite. After this, the mineralogical features become more diversified, and independent of the primitive formation, we have the following partial ones resting upon it: At Malacca, clay shot iron ore—at Pulo Pinang, common jasper—at the Carimons, horn-stone with the granite occasionally protruding—at Singapore, and all the small islands around it, sandstone. The granite again appears at Johore and Romania, and between them there is found porphyry. At Pahang, we have quartz rock and the same again at Tringanu. The only metals yet discovered, with the exception of iron, of which no good ores have been found, are gold and tin; but the extent to which these two are disseminated compensates for the absence of the rest, for they are not only found from Johore to the furthest northern limits of the Peninsula, but passing these, are to be found on the eastern shore as far as the 13th degree of north latitude, and on the western at least as far as the 14th. This is the most extensive tin formation in the world, those of England and Germany being mere spots in comparison.

Narrow, mountainous, destitute of plains and great rivers, the Malayan Peninsula cannot be described either in point of soil or physical aspect as a favored region. It has accordingly undergone surprisingly little change through the industry of man, because it has afforded little excitement or assistance to his rude and early efforts, and contains so few monuments of civilization that its history cannot, by any species of evidence, be carried back beyond a few centuries. Thus it exhibits, in regard to man at least, the same character of infancy and recent settlement which its first discoverers observed in regard to America. The greater part of the country is covered with primeval forests, among which the seats of the different states and pricipalities appear as scattered and in considerable patches of cultivation, usually at the mouths of rivers, where the people draw a large share of their subsistence from their fisheries.

The Peninsula is occupied by three distinct native races, the Malayan colonists, a brown race of savages, and a negro race. The negroes are few in number, perfect savages and of little consideration, except as an object of curiosity to the philologist and philosopher. The brown savages, called the JAKONG and the BENUA, are wild races of men living in the deep forests of the interior of the Peninsula, being spread over the territories of Malacca, Rumbowe and Johor. They exist principally in the hunter state, some of the least uncivilized practising a little rude agriculture. Their persons are nearly naked, and their habitations extremely rude. A death happening in a tribe is always the signal for abandoning the spot for a new dwelling. They appear to practice no cruel rites, and in their manners to be altogether extremely inoffensive. What renders this wild people most remarkable, is their differing totally in language and physical form from the negro races which inhabit the interior of the more northern parts of the Peninsula. They are, in fact, Malays in the savage state. Doctor Leyden, who visited them in 1811 on our way to the conquest of Java, could discover in their language but seven and twenty words which differed from common Malay, and on examination of the specimens he gives, we find, that at least six or seven are extremely doubtful, while two or three appear original Malay words, for which Sanscrit ones have been substituted in the modern dialect.

The Malayan race, the origin of which has been satisfactorily traced to Sumatra, and whose settlement is of about six centuries date, is greatly superior to these in point of civilization, probably in their way as superior as the French and English are to the Laplanders. They may be stated to form, at present, seven or even eight states, or principalities, of each of which the following is a brief notice.

The furthest to the north on the south-western coast is Queda. The principality of Queda is about 118 geographical miles in length from north to south. Its breadth is unequal and every where inconsiderable; for the utmost width of this portion of the Peninsula itself is but 130 miles, and this it divides every where with Patany, a chain of high mountains running north and south dividing the breadth of the Peninsula between them. The boundary to the north between Queda and Siam is Langgu in latitude 6° 50' and the boundary between it and Perak, Kurao, about the latitude of 5°. Besides the territory on the main, several large islands belong to this state. The principal of these is Lang-kawi, which is 25 miles long, and which has a considerable share of culture and population. Trutao, the next in size, is 15 miles in length, and has a small population. The character of this territory in general is that of being extremely woody, marshy, and mountainous. From Langgu to Kurao inclusive, (for both these give names to rivers,) there are counted not less than six and thirty streams. Six of these are of very considerable size, and of use both to commerce and agriculture. In the range of mountains in the interior there are many of great height, and Jarai, a detached mountain near the western coast, is supposed to be 6,000 feet high. Although the country is little cultivated, it does not seem to be destitute of fertility, and its capacity of production is satisfactorily shewn in its power of supplying the principal consumption of Penang, now superior in amount to the whole of its own original population. The country before the late Siamese invasion, was supposed to contain from 40 to 50,000 inhabitants, divided into 105 petty parishes originally of 44 families each, having a parish mosque. If we can rely upon the information of Commodore Beaulieu who visited this country in 1820, it must have contained, seven years before his visit, a population of 60,000 souls, for he tells us that an epidemic which raged about that time carried off 40,000 or two-thirds of the whole number. Against this opinion, however, it ought to be observed that at whatever period it was divided into mokins and families as now, it could not have contained more than one half its present population which is the number that 105 mokins of 44 families each would give, allowing 5 inhabitants to each family.

The indigenous inhabitants of the territory of Queda consist of four classes, namely—Malays—Samsams—Siamese and Samangs, but chiefly of the two former. By Samsams are meant people of the Siamese race who have adopted the mahomedan religion, and who speak a language which is a mixed jargon of the languages of the two people. The revenue of the petty chief of this country amounted, before the Siamese occupation, to about 42,000 dollars a year. The country, from the earliest knowledge of Europeans, has been a tributary or vassal state of Siam, and besides contributing in war to the assistance of the paramount state in

men, arms, and provisions, by immemorial usage the king of Queda sends to Siam, in common with other Malayan princes, a triennial token of submission in the form of a little tree of gold, which hence comes to be applied by the Malays of those parts to any tribute whatever. About the beginning of the 17th century, Queda was conquered by Achin, which held it for some years, in a state of temporary vassalage. Three years ago, it was overrun & subdued by the Siamese who still hold possession of it. It is hardly necessary to mention that Prince Wales Island, with a narrow strip of territory on the opposite shore, formed portions of this principality. Of these we shall say nothing at present, as we may have another opportunity of describing them at large. The principal town of this principality, called also Queda or more correctly Kedah, is in the Lat. of 6° 5' north, on the right bank and near the mouth of an inconsiderable river. The place has a small brick fort. A few miles further up the stream, is Alustar, a more populous place, and a favorite residence of the princes.

Perak, the next state to Queda to the south, extends about 75 miles along the coast and in breadth divides the widest part of the peninsula with Tringanu. It contains 105 *mokims* or petty parishes and is said to contain as considerable a population as that of Queda, if not a greater one. Perak contains the most productive tin mines of any part of the western peninsula, yielding, it is believed, not less than 3,000 piculs annually. Perak had been, for at least a century and a half, under the commercial controul of the Dutch who had a factory at the town and at one time a small fort on the fine harbour formed between the Dinding Islands and the main. This last place, of which the ruins still exist, is well described by the great navigator Dampier in his usual naive and graphic manner. Perak, like Queda, is a tributary of Siam, and proving refractory about 5 years ago, was reduced to obedience through the instrumentality of the latter. The town is situated a considerable way up one of the largest and most navigable rivers of the Peninsula.

The principality of Selengore, correctly Salangor, comes next to Perak, the boundary between them being in the latitude of 3° 50.' It extends about 120 miles along the shore, and inland is separated by mountains from Tringanu and Pahang. This is the least considerable of the Malayan states in resources and population, but has lately begun to attract local interest in this quarter from the fertile tin mines which have been recently opened within it. Those which are worked by Chinese, are situated at two places called Lukut and Kalang not far to the north of Cape Rachado, and close upon the Dutch, now the British frontier. Their annual produce is said to be 3,000 piculs. The government of Salengore for the last century at least has been in the hands of a colony of Bugis from Celebes, but the mass of the population is Malayan. Of all the Malayan states on the Peninsula, it labours under the heaviest *mala fama* on the score of piracy, man-stealing, man-slaughter and similar *peccadilloes* of the code of Malayan morals.

The territory of Malacca is 40 miles in length along the sea, and extends 30 miles inland. That of Salangor bounds it to the north at Cape Rachado which is within the limits of this latter state. Johor bounds it to the south at the river of Muar, and the territory of Rumbowe to the east. The largest mountain in the territory of Malacca is Ledang, which the Portuguese and other Europeans, in imitation of them, have denominated mount Ophir, and which is 5,600 feet high. Besides a number of petty streams, there are two considerable rivers, namely Muar already named, and Lingy Tuah, the *embouchure* of which last is a little to the south of Cape Rachado. The territory of Malacca affords both gold and tin, and the mines of the latter have been wrought of late years so successfully, as to produce annually 4,000 piculs; which quantity, it is reasonably believed, may be greatly extended by an additional application of capital under better security and with free and steady markets. It does not, upon the whole, appear, as far as enquiry has extended, that the soil of Malacca deserves to be eulogized for its fertility. We draw this conclusion from its never having supplied its own population, small as it is, with sufficient corn for its consumption; a matter which would certainly not have failed to have been the case in such a state of society and where the raising of other productions does not interfere with the growing of corn, had the territory been generally fruitful. Malacca produces some good pepper, about 4,000 piculs annually, and this branch of culture may undoubtedly be greatly extended. Coffee has recently been tried, but sufficient time has not yet elapsed to determine with what success. Crude sago brought from Sumatra is manufactured at Malacca into pearl sago, and the trade in this com-

modity, which was first prepared here not above ten years ago, is very considerable. The trade of Malacca is at present principally with Singapore, to which it furnishes, tin—pepper—sago—hogs—poultry—fruits—bricks, and tiles. This intercourse, instead of proving injurious to either party, as some superficial observers have suspected, is highly beneficial to both, and in fact, their prosperity depends in no small degree upon its being kept free and unrestrained. The whole territory of Malacca, including the town, contains no more than 22,000 inhabitants according to a census taken in 1822. This population, from all accounts long stationary, and which gives little more than 18 inhabitants to a square mile, is but a poor complement to the different forms of European government and policy under which this settlement has been ruled for more than three centuries. The permanent inhabitants of Malacca are the Malays; the brown coloured race of savages with lank hair already mentioned; a race of Hindu colonists from TELINGA; the descendants of the Portuguese conquerors, and those of the Dutch. To this list is to be added the usual admixture of Chinese and of mahomedans of the coast of Coromandel.

The petty state of Rumbowe is an anomaly on the Malayan Peninsula, being an internal territory unconnected with the sea, and its inhabitants agricultural. The people of Rumbowe who are poor but inoffensive, are a more recent emigration from the parent stock in Sumatra, than any of the other Malays of the Peninsula. The chief still professes himself a tributary of the Rajas of Menangkabao from whom he receives an investiture, and the people are distinguished from their neighbours and indentified with those of the western and central parts of Sumatra by their inbit of substituting the vowel *o* for *a* in the termination of words.

The principality of Johor embraces the whole extremity of the Malayan Peninsula from Muar, in latitude 2° 10' north on the west coast, and from Kamamang in latitude 4° 15' on the east. Independent of this, it embraces the numerous Islands at the mouth of the straits of Malacca lying between the 2nd degree of north and the 1st. degree of south latitude, and not only these, but all the Islands in the China seas lying between the 104th & 109th degrees of east longitude as far as the Natunas. This extensive but ill-peopled and sterile domain is virtually divided into three principalities viz.—the Islands lying south to the straits of Malacca, and which are under the protection of the Dutch—those lying to the north, as well as the territory lying on the west coast of the Peninsula and its whole extremity which are under the protection of the English, and the continental portion of the east which is independent, constituting the state of Pahang. The Islands under Dutch protection, some of which are very large, are many of them destitute of inhabitants and all of them ill-peopled and sterile. Several of them, however, are productive in tin, and others afford considerable supplies of black pepper, and an extensive one of catechu. By far the most important station is the Dutch settlement of Rhio, situated on the Island which Europeans call Bintang, but for which the natives have no name. The continental portion of the Johor territory under the protection of the English is still more barren and thinly peopled than the insular, and has hitherto been remarkable for affording no important productions to commerce. Johor, the old seat of government, is situated about 20 miles up a large river, the embouchure of which is in a nook, opposite the N. east end of the Island of Singapore and not above 20 miles from Cape Romania. The place is a small fishing village with 20 or 30 houses, and of no consequence, unless some tin mines which have lately been discovered should prove productive, as is not impropable. The inhabitants of these two portions, especially those of the islands, are a rude race of fishermen called by their own country men, Orang laut, or "men of the sea." They have been of great and notorious repute as pirates for at least three centuries, and were early distinguished as such in the European history of India. Purchase calls them Celati, which is evidently the Malay word Sellati, or belonging to the straits, and describes them as "men that lived on the sea by fishing and piracy."

The territory of Pahang extends from Sadile in Lat. 2° 15' to Kamamang already mentioned. Pahang yields tin and gold. The first of these, which produces to the extent of 1000 piculs annually is worked by the Malays. The gold amounts to about two piculs yearly and is wrought by Chinese miners who consume about 20 chests of opium. The whole population is said not to fall short of 50,000. The Rajah of Pahang as he is commonly called is nominally no more than Bimdahara, treasurer or first minister of the Sultan of Johor but in reality

is as independent of that chief as the vizier of Oude is of the Mogul. In early times he appears to have been altogether independent, and is so described by the Portuguese writers who, in the careless orthography of those times, style him "the king of Pan."

Tringanu, the next state on the eastern coast, extends from Kamamang to the river Basut, at which last it borders upon Calantan. In the interior, it is bounded by Perak at the central range of mountains, no part, however, of which is included within its bounds. The population of this principality is said to amount to 35,000 Malays inclusive of Chinese, and it is subdivided into 35 mukims or parishes. Its production in tin and gold is very considerable, the first being said not to fall short of 7000 piculs yearly.

Calantan is a larger and more populous state than Tringanu, and on the coast extends from the river Basut to that of Banara where it borders on Patani. It contains 50 mukims or parishes, with a population, independent of Chinese, of 50,000. The produce of Calantan consists of gold, tin, and pepper, the second of which amounts to 3000 and the last to 12,000 piculs annually. Independent of the Chinese engaged in other descriptions of industry, it is said that within the three states of Pahang, Tringanu, and Calantan, 15,000 of this race are engaged in the gold mines, and that their industry produces this metal to the value of 420,000 spanish dollars yearly. The greater part of this comes to the market of Singapore and some portion finds its way across the mountains to Penang and Malacca, the last place, indeed, having, previously to the establishment of the new settlement, constituted the principal mart for gold in these parts.

The state of Patani is the largest and most populous of the Malayan peninsula; extending north as far as the lat. 7° 20, the boundary between it and the proper country of the Siamese being at a place called Tana within the latter. This state is divided into the following five governments, viz. Pujut—Jambu—Raman—Suggeh and, Sai; Raman and Saggeh are in the interior—the rest on the sea coast. The territory of Patani, more fertile and productive than that of the other Malayan states, yields but a small quantity of tin, but a considerable one of rice, and a large one of salt. Unlike the other Malayan states of Queda, Perak, Tringanu, and Calantan which hitherto had yielded little more than a nominal obedience to Siam, Patani is completely subjected to, and occupied by the Siamese who even constitute a considerable portion of its population; while instead of paying a nominal tribute it is assessed with a tax in corn and money. The English once had a factory in Patani where they first arrived in the year 1612. "Some of the English" says Purchase "came to Patani, with a letter from his Majesty (James the I.) to the Queen accompanied with a present from the merchants, of 600 rials of eight. This letter was delivered in great pomp, being laid in a bason of gold, carried on an elephant furnished with many little flags, lances and minstrels. The queen's court also being sumptuously prepared to this business. They obtained grant of a trade on like conditions to the Hollanders, who had their factory there ten years before this time, and their house in that space twice burnt."—The long discontinued intercourse with this country has been renewed since the establishment of Singapore.

NANING.

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE TERRITORY AND INHABITANTS OF NANING, IN THE MALAYAN PENINSULA. By Lieut. J. J. NEWBOLD, 23rd Rgt. Madras Native Infantry.

TOPOGRAPHY.—*Naning* is an inland territory; its mean length north and south, about forty miles, by an average of ten in breadth, giving 400 square miles. The boundary to the northward was never clearly defined till the 7th of January 1833, when Mr. WESTERHOUT the superintendent of *Naning*, came up to Sungie Seepoot a village near the frontier, to meet the Rumbowe chiefs with a view of determining the respective boundaries of the two territories. An agreement was here drawn up, and signed by the Raja Muda, the Panghulu of Rumbowe, Maharaja Lilah, and the eight Sukus, and by Mr. WESTERHOUT and two witnesses on the part of government.

The boundary line agreed on, commences at Qualla Sungie Gernee, thence to Bukit Bertram, thence to Bukit-Jelatang, to Bukit-Puttoos, thence to Serat-Ganji, Luba-Talan, Duson-Feringie, Duson-Kapar, and Ooloo-sanga to Bukit-Puttoos*. By this arrangement a spot fertile in tin, and an accession of territory have been gained to government.

This line with part of Johole and mount Ophir, form the eastern and northern boundary; to the southward, *Naning* is bounded by the Malacca and Assahan territory; on the west by Malacca, and on the left by a branch of the Lingie or Rumbowe river.

The face of the country presents an undulating extent interspersed with high knolls thickly clothed with jungles; the hollows, or rather flats, between these undulations, where the water lodges in the rainy season, average 70 or 80 yards in width, and either form a swamp or paddy-ground, according to the industry or otherwise of the natives in the vicinity.

The soil on the high grounds is red and gravelly generally; on the flats soft and whitish. Pipe-clay is found in some parts, as also a rich black soil.

Naning has only three streams, scarcely to be called rivers—Sungie Rumbowe, Sungie Malacca, and Sungie Landac; of these, the Rumbowe stream is much the largest. It enters *Naning* from Rumbowe near Qualla Maraboo, whence it makes its exit into the Malacca territory, a little below the place where it receives the waters of Sungie Landac. It is here nearly 16 yards broad, and passable for troops in dry weather; in the rains it is fordable.

Trees thrown across here and there constitute the only bridges: boats come up, but their supply is precarious.

This and the Lingie river unite below Sempang, a tongue of land belonging to Rumbowe, which is formed by the division of the two streams, about six miles below the north-western extremity of *Naning*, and nearly midway between it and the sea, where it empties itself, deviding the Malacca and Selangore territories about 24 miles to the northward of Malacca. Up to Sempang its mean breadth is 180 fathoms: soundings at the mouth (high water and

* The boundaries of Naning with Johole and Malacca have been fixed, since the writing of this Memoir—with the former, the line extends from Bukit Puttoos to Bukit Batang Malacca, and terminates at mount Ophir. The Malacca line commences at mount Ophir, and thence taking a south westerly direction passes through Rambotan Gading, Battu Bekawat, Bukit Lansat; Bukit Badarie, Bukit Panchoor, Pankalan Sampit, Qualla Sungiepattye, Campong Codia Pacho, Pondo Sassam, Pondo Panjang, Pondo Battu, Bukit Kayu Arang, Bukit Pembagian, Ramaun China Kechil, and Tebbing Tingih. From Tebbing Tingih to Qualla Londoo, the Rumbowe river is the boundary between Naning and Rumbowe to Qualla Sungie Gernee.

spring tides) seven and eight fathoms. The tide barely reaches to the *Naning* territory.

Sungie Londoo is a small stream taking its rise at Bukit kayu arang, or the Ebony hills, in the Malacca territory. It enter *Naning* near Cahow taking an almost northerly course, and emptying itself into the Rumbowe river below Si Maraboo.

Sungie Malacca is formed of two branches, taking their rise, the one in the hills of Rumbowe, the other near Batang Malacca, in Naning: they unite near Sabang, taking a westerly direction, and quitting Naning near Sungie-pattye fall into the sea at Malacca, having an embouchure of about 16 yards wide. In the wet season it is navigable for provision and baggage boats to Ching in Malacca, and thence by Malayan canoes (sampans) to Sabang in Naning. Throughout *Naning*, it is fordable in dry weather, but not in the rains; it is crossed at short distances by the usual rude foot-bridges. Its bed is generally sand and gravel; the banks grassy and sandy; in some parts steep. Besides these streams, there are many small rivulets not worthy of notice.

The native roads are merely footpaths cut, and cleared constantly by the Malays as they pass along with their parangs, which a Malay is seldom or never without.

There are vestiges of a road here cut by COLONEL FARQUHAR from Malacca to Sabang in *Naning* which it enters at Malacca Pinda; but from neglect it is little better than the native footpath.

The Malay roads run over the bunds of the paddy fields, which frequently break down, having a deep puddle, over which they thrown a bamboo or two as a bridge; their streams and rivulets boast of nothing better than a couple of trees felled carelessly across their course, with sometimes a slight bamboo as a hand-rail.

These paths, if little travelled on by the Malays, are liable to serious obstruction, particularly in a military point of view, from the numerous forest trees blown down by the wind, or falling through the decay of ages.

I have seen in a remote part of this country, the path as effectually barricaded by this accidental obstruction, as if a body of Malays had been at work to cut off our communications.

A military road of communication between Taboo (the wretched capital of ABDUL SYED, situated nearly on the frontier of Naning), was opened during the operations in 1832, following, in parts, the old Malay footpath. It enters Naning at Sungie-pattye, passes through Alor Gajah (now Lismore our military post), over the shoulder of the hill of Bukit Sa Boosoh to Taboo, where it terminates about three and a half miles from "Kubur Feringie," (the ancient tomb of a Portuguese in the jungle,) on the Rumbowe frontier, to which territory a path through a dense forest leads.

The Taboo road was constructed on excellent principles for the service for which it was intended; a thick and lofty forest has been cleared to the extend of from 70 to 100 paces on either side, precluding the possibility of trees falling or being felled across. The low underwood in the intermediate space was burnt so as to afford the lurking Malay no shelter. Brushwood and branches of trees, secured on either side, by strong piles, and layers of gravel thrown over the whole, enable the guns and provision-carts to pass with ease the numerous sawahs and marshes.

From the Naning road, at its entrance into the Naning territory at Sungie-pattye, branches another nearly due west, leading to Sungie Baru, a cultivated district, distant about nine miles. This has been constructed since the cessation of hostilities. Another road to Sabang (one of the most populous places in Naning, and a military post about four miles from Alor Gaja,) branches off in an easterly direction. From Sabang there is a bullock road to Taboong, the most easterly of the Naning outposts, eight miles distant from Sabang; also a bandy road to Taboo, which joins the road from Alor Gaja, shortly after entering the Taboo lines. From Sabang are also roads to the outpost of Qualla Eena and Pellowe, three or four miles distant from thence.

Water is plentiful and may easily be got, two or three feet below the surface on the slope of the rising grounds. It is often of an acidulous mineral taste, but is not accounted unhealthy by Europeans.

There is a hot sulphureous mineral spring near Sabang, the water of which is esteemed by

the Malays as very beneficial in cutaneous diseases. I have rarely passed without seeing some diseased native bathing his contaminated person in the steaming liquid. There is also a hot spring in the jungle near Taboo: the natives say that the temperature of this is much greater than that of the Sabang spring. I have not been able to discover that a volcano has ever existed in Naning, nor are there any volcanic remains visible.

A small portion of gold is, I understand, to be found in Naning, and tin in considerable quantities; but it wants a more industrious and energetic population to turn these advantages to account. Mr. WESTERHOUT, superintendent of Naning, has established a tin mine at Londie, about two and a quarter miles from Taboo; of the produce of which and the ore I possess very favorable specimens. The charcoal used by the Malays for roasting and smelting the ore is that of the compas and kamuning wood. The following is a translation of the simple Malay mining process, given me by a Malay miner:—"excavate the ground to the depth of a man; if there be ore, you will find it like small dark stone; then make a channel to drain off the water; this done construct a furnace, like the one used in burning lime, with a funnel beneath, to allow the fused metal to escape: heap it with the ore and compas or kamuning charcoal; set fire to and blow it, and the metal is produced." Straits tin is now selling at 13⅝ dollars to 14½ and Banca, from 15 to 15½, per picul. The native mines are very superficial, seldom more than from six to twelve feet deep, and as many in length and width. The process will be more fully described hereafter.

PRODUCE AND TRADE. The chief produce of Naning is rice, timber, and fruits; of the former, the produce averages 70 gantams to one sown. There is one crop a year. The inhabitants carry on a trade with Malacca, in timber for house-building, and in fruits, the rice is generally used in home consumption.

Gambier, rattans, 21 varieties of kalady, jaggery, damar, together with a small quantity of pepper, pan and betel, marabow, compas, ebony, and kamuning wood, with wood oil, and a little inferior coffee, are likewise found; pepper and gambier were much more cultivated than at present; the diminution is to be described to the present low prices these two articles bear in the market.

Pepper, to pay well, ought to fetch seven dollars per picul; the price now varies between five and six. Gambier sells at 3 and 3½ dollars; it has been stated that Naning produces annually three hundred piculs of tin, sixteen thousand gantams of paddy, and a quantity of coir rope.

Sago, nibong, ranjow, areca, and jack trees are plentiful.

I possess a list of ten different varieties of cocoanut trees, of which the "Klapa logie," a sweet cocoanut, is most esteemed.

Also thirty-nine varieties of plantain, of which the "pisang berangan" and "pisang raja" are the best; the odoriferous dorian is accounted by Malays the first fruit in the world. There are two or three varieties of it in Naning, of which the "dorian tambaga," and the "kapalah gajah," or the "elephant's head," are held the greatest delicacies. The mangis or mangoostin grows in Naning, an excellent fruit, of which I do not hear that there is more than one variety; pine-apple, rambotan, (two varieties,) the duku, and tampoy, the langseh, (three varieties,) the dalimah and about fifty others, of which I have lists, as well as most of the jungle trees, with the native mode of cultivation, which, for the sake of brevity, are omitted.

There are forty-five species of trees in the jungle, of which the fruit is edible, and of which the Naningites availed themselves during the late disturbances. There are fourteen varieties of oranges and lemons, and sixteen varieties of yams, and twenty three of culinary vegetables.

Naning produces most of the animals to be met with on the Malay peninsula; amongst the principal of which are the elephant, rhinoceros, and tapir, (rare) a variety of tigers, tiger cats, leopards, monkeys, bears, alligators, guanas, & an endless variety of birds: the argus pheasant, the peacock, pheasant rhinoceros, hornbill, humming bird, and a large vampyre bat called the kaluwang;—snipes are common, but the hare and common partridge are not be met with. There are a great variety of snakes, and one or two of deer; two varieties exceedingly minute, termed by the Malays the "plandok" and "napu" the flesh of which is dried and eaten.

The Malays of Naning do not cultivate more rice than is absolutely necessary for their private wants, and the portion annually given up to the Panghulu; this is generally cut in February and March. The principal grain districts are Sabang and Malikie. The Panghulu depended on these places in a good measure for his supplies. Firearms and gunpowder are scarce.

Carriage is got with difficulty and expense in Naning. Coolies are the best means for transporting baggage.

The Malays are despicable as an enemy in open ground or at close quarters, (except the rare amok,) seldom or never trusting their persons from the protection of a breast-work or trees; when they retreat, they plant ranjow (a sort of wooden caltrop) in their rear. During a war which lasted two months, behind breast-works, between the chief of Rumbowe and a confederacy of minor chiefs against him, after a large expenditure of powder and a disastrous list of bursten lilahs, the bills of mortality actually amounted to two casualties. In short, their plan is one of incessantly harassing the line of communication, stockading and retreating: the best, in fact, they could adopt in a country covered with forest, and where every tree is a strong-hold and every road a defile.

Taboo is the only decidedly unhealthy post to Europeans; of the officers, who remained there any length of time, one alone escaped fever.

It is situated, not low, but surrounded by lofty hills, covered with jungle, which, perhaps, by impeding the free circulation of air, may contribute to its character for unhealthiness; which it also bears from the natives themselves.

The climate of the interior is not favorable to the long occupation of the country by Indian troops; at all events they would require frequent reliefs. Fever and an obstinate ulcer attacking the legs, are their principal enemies; a slight scratch, without attention, being difficult to heal.

The ulcer attacks the Malays also; they call it *tokah*; they also have a species of leprosy called *kusta*, and a disease, like cholera, called *ang-in tsawan*, or the "wind of pestilence." Both of these last are deemed incurable in Naning, and the unfortunate sufferer is generally deserted by his friends in his greatest need, or driven into the jungle to perish, as an outcast. *Katumbhoh*, or small-pox, is prevalent. I have not heard that inoculation or vaccination, is know to the natives; at all events, it is not practised; they use refrigerating medicines.

POPULATION AND REVENUE.—The census of 1829 states the population of Naning at 3,458 souls, of whom 1,800 are capable of bearing arms, & 911 houses. The revenue is derived from its produce, and has been estimated, before the war, at 3,000 dollars per annum; this is probably above the average.

The Panghulu levied an annual tribute, formerly, from every house, of five gantams of rice, two fowls, and two cocoanuts.

The principal villages are those of Sabang, Laboo, Chirara Pootih, Malikie, Battang Malacca, Sungie seepoot, & Brissoo. Sabang, with the small campongs around, contain 148 houses; they present similar features to other Malay villages; the houses are situated near edges of paddy fields, and invisible at a distance from the number of cocoanuts and other fruit-trees, by which, as well as a paggah fence, they are usually surrounded; they are straggling, and one village runs into another, in a manner from which it is impossible for a mere observer to know where the one ends, and the other commences.

Taboo, the chief village and former place of residence of the ex-Panghulu of Naning, lies about seven miles from our principal post, Alor Gaja, through an undulating country of jungle hills and uncultivated rice grounds.

About two and a half miles from camp (Alor Gaja,) crowning a small eminence, seventy yards to the left of the road, stood the stockade of Bukit Sabooseh, taken by Captain Poulton's detachment on the 25th May, 1832. This position commanded the Taboo road.

Below this hill, on the Taboo side, lies the village of Malikie, to which the expedition in 1831 penetrated. Farther on, about a mile in a commanding position on the road, which gradually ascends to it, stood the stockade of Bukit Perling; thence towards Taboo, the

* He also possessed the privileges of hu dendin, pengutan, and kapala-ayer.

descent of the hill is very steep, and as usual, terminates at the foot, in an uncultivated swampy rice-ground.

Perling was decidedly the strongest military position taken up by the enemy, and in some measure, deserved the name "the key of Taboo," bestowed on it, by the Panghulu.

From this up to the Taboo lines, the country on the left bears traces of a better cultivation, and a once numerous population.

The Taboo lines consists of a long mud wall, about eight feet high, and three or four thick, rivetted by stakes and branches of trees laid parallel to each other; this wall runs across the rice grounds in the front, on the edges of the raised ground, on which grows a thick cocoanut tope, forming the rear, and containing a burial-ground, with several deserted houses; the lines are 840 feet long. There is a bastion-like projection in the centre, the idea of which does the Malayan Vauban credit.

The left of the lines terminates in an epaulment, flanked by a steep hill, whilst the right terminates with the tope in a deep swampy rice-ground. The rice ground in front is traversed by a small rivulet, and flanked by jungle, in which were three small stockades; and on the left by steep wooded hills, on the bottom of which, near the edge of the rice-ground, runs the Alor Gaja road.

In front of the left of the lines rises Bukit Penialangan, or "Execution hill" (so called from the ex-Panghulu's selecting this as his "*place de grêve*") commanding the lines from right to left: some distance in rear of the burial-ground is a mosque, and the building where the *taboh* or great drum, whence the place derives its name, was placed. The taboh itself has been displaced, and now lies broken on the ground. The sacred baths of the ex-panghulu, (little sheds) are near this. Here the superstitious Malays were wont to seek a remedy for their maladies from the holy water into which the sacred foot of the panghulu had been dipped.

The house of the panghulu was situated in the midst of an almost insulted cocoanut tope, and surrounded by a high stockade of bamboo, with an imperfect mud breast-work. It has been pulled down by order of government, partly I understand, to do away with any superstitious idea entertained by the natives of the panghulu's future return to it, from the circumstance of its remaining standing.

The village of Taboo itself is a small collection of Malay houses, not amounting to 30, surrounded as usual, by topes of fruit trees, and shut in by lofty hills, mostly covered with forest; it is considered unhealthy, as stated before; there are many idle superstitions connected with its environs.

The Rumbowe frontier at Kubur Feringie, through Chirara Pootih, the last Naning village, is distant hence about three and a half miles. Taboo is about twenty-two miles, north by west, of Malacca.

RELIGION.—The inhabitants of Naning are mahomedans of the Safi sect, & were converted in the thirteenth century in the time of Muhammed Shah, the first king of Malacca, prior to which time, it is supposed, that they were of the faith of Buddha; the distinction of Shiah or Rafzi, and Sanni, so common in India and Russia, are unknown to the generality of them, owing perhaps to their Arab teachers. Many being descendants of Arabs, their attention to the rites of Islam is more constant and regular than is to be met with among the muhammedans of India, from whom also they differ considerably in their rites and ceremonies; though not in their belief in the great principles on which the religion of Muhammed has its basis. Their criminal laws, though founded on the precepts of the Koran, are by no means so exclusively so as those by which the Indian followers of the prophet guide their conduct.

The *Haj* or pilgrimage to Mecca is here common. The *kurban* and *azat*,—sacrificing and giving religious alms,—are more general. They circumcise both males and females; the women came out unveiled in public. The moslems in India are generally Hanifites. The Naningites prefer the doctrines of Imam Safi.

They devour locusts. Their rites of burial and marriage differ; they esteem the flesh of a buffalo as the greatest luxury; they have no *erzas*. They hold three days of the week as lucky to commence any undertaking, viz. Monday, Thursday, and Friday.

In short, the Malay resembles more the Arab in the simple mode of his worship, than the mussalman of Hindustan, tainted and contaminated by the admixture of many Hindu observances and ceremonies.

They have no maulavis nor ulamas like the mussalmans of India; they observe the five stated daily periods of prayer, as also the postures *ruku*, and *sudjud; itedal* and *kiam*.

There are four officiating priests attached to each mosque, besides the kali or kazi, who presides over a number of mosques, viz. the imam, the khateb, the * bilal or muezzin, and the panghulu momkim or mukim.

The immediate religious care of the inhabitants of the mukim (or parish) to which the mosque belongs devolves upon the imam, khateb and bilal.

There are two kazis in Naning, Selaho and Sulong Tuman; to both of which priests I am indebted for much of the information collected here on the religious usages obtaining in Naning. The former resides at Campong Tengha, near Malikie, the latter at Malacca Pinda. The kazi is guardian to all orphans, who have no near male relations; he is arbitrator in all knotty religious points, which the four inferior priests may not be able to decide; he confirms marriages In the month of ramzan, or the Malayan *puasa*, the Naningites present their kazis with the *fetrah* in the shape of small donations of rice; generally, one gantam from each individual. The kazi receives, at the death of any person, one suku, and at sacrifices, the head of the victim.

The functions of the imam are principally merged in the performance of the sacred rites of the muhammedan religion, viz. those under the head of the *imamet*, the *mandi*, and *kafan*, or washing and shrouding of the dead; the *selat imajet*, or prayer pronounced over the corpse, previous to interment. The fee of the imam is commonly one suku, and the clothes of the deceased. The imams of Malacca do not perform the duties of washing and shrouding the dead; the office is there executed by the bilal, and in India by the naib of the kazi.

The khatib, as in India and Arabia, recites the *khatbeh*, an oration or sermon, in praise of God, the prophet, and his vicegerents, on Friday, in the mosque, from the three steps of the mimbar, a species of rostrum; and he performs the *nikah* or marriage ceremony, for which he receives three peraks (nearly equivalent to six annas,) four cubits of white cloth, and a tikar, a sort of mat.

The duties of the bilal are sacrificial; the calling to public prayer, the reciting of the *telkeen*, the service for the dead, after the corpse has been lowered into the grave. He receives as his fee for this a tikar and one perak. When a goat or buffalo is sacrificed, he receives two fingers breadth of flesh from the victim's neck.

The panghulu momkim or mukim is an inferior servant of the mosque, which it is his duty to keep clean, and in good order; to remove the bodies of the dead, to assist at burials; to go round the various campongs and give notice of the performance of public prayer, and to report absentees to the imam. He beats the taboh or great drum of the mosque to assemble all devout mussalmans to prayer.

The *telkeen* is sometimes read by this functionary.

The imam, khatibs, bilals, and panghulu momkims are elected to their several offices, after an examination into their fitness and capabilities, by the kazis and elders: besides the fees already mentioned, they each receive annually from every individual attending the mosque, a present of one gantam of paddy.

There are 16 mosques to the momkims or mukims (parishes) in Naning, viz. those of Taboo, Bukit Tootoo†, Pago, Taboong Pulu, Sonno, Brisso, Sungie-seepot, Londoo, Ayer Parlas, Tanjong Reemo, Padang, Sabang, Kamooning, Pillowe, Malacca Pinda, Battang Malacca, and Malikie.

Each of these mosques are under the immediate controul of an imam and a khatib; and

* Bilal was the name of the first muezzin in the time of the prophet, and is used by the Malays instead of the term muezzin.

† This mosque has since been removed to Kalana.

under them the bilal, and panghulu mukim. The whole of the establishments are superintended by the kazis or kalis, of whom, as previously stated, there are two in Naning.

The mosques are repaired at the public expense, and are generally situated detached from any house on small insular knolls, in the midst of sawahs. They are conical shaped buildings of wood, raised on wooden pillars, with ornaments of the same materials, like the wings of birds at the eight corners of the two roofs, that cover the building like the "flies" of a tent; the inner part consists of one spacious room, kept extremely clean, with a wooden mimbar or pulpit at one end.

The taboh or drum is generally placed in a small building erected for the purpose close to the mosque. It is a long hollow cone of wood, over the wide aperture of which is stretched the strong hide of buffalo. Before the time appointed for meeting at public prayers, it is beat by the panghulu momkim, to give the inhabitants of the surrounding campongs notice.

There are no minarets to the mosques in Naning. The only one that I have seen in the peninsula is that of the Malayan mosque at Malacca: on the top of this is a gong, which is struck instead of the drum. The graves that are found near the mosques in Naning, are generally those of rich or religious men; poor men being generally buried at a distance.

At the mosque of Bukit Tootoo, near Alor Gaja, are the tombs of the late Rajah Muda of Rumbowe, Rajah Assil, who was driven from his dominion by Rajah Ali, and that of Anja the predecessor of the ex-panghulu of Naning.

A mukim must consist of 44 houses; the khatbeh cannot be read in the mosque until the number be complete.

There are many tombs of men famed for piety interspersed throughout the country, in whose name the people of Naning make vows for the prosperous termination of any object, and go to their tombs to make oblations, &c. They call such tombs *kramets*. There is no particular day as in India, in which they congregate to perform the * *erza*, or pilgrimage.

The most sacred tombs, or kramets, in Naning are those at Kala-kattee, Pace-dalam, and Bukit Paiou, near Taboo; also those of Khateeb Batani at Londoo, of Dattu Dalou at Sabang, and those at Lubi Koppong and Kalama.

Those mentioned before, at Bukit Tootoo, of the expelled Raja Muda of Rumbowe, and Anja, the predecessor of the ex-panghulu of Naning, will, when hallowed by time, become "kramet," which literally signifies "revered" "venerable" a "miracle; but it is a term given generally by Malays to the burial-places of the early Arabian zealots, who first preached the doctrines of Muhammed on the Malay peninsula.

The *biddan* or midwife always attends on the occasions of births; her hire is about a dollar for the forty days, during which it is customary for her to remain.

The new arrival, being washed, &c. the father puts his mouth to its ear, and pronounces the *azan*, or "Allah akbar;"—on the seventh day, the ceremony of *berchukur*, or shaving the head, is performed, together with the *fatehah* and *maulood* a form of prayer used at births.

On the fortieth day, the woman performs the customary ablutions and prayers, and is pronounced clean.

The ceremony of *berasa gigi*, or filing the teeth, takes place among women before the day fixed for the *antar belanja*, i. e. the day in which it is customary for the bridegroom to send the money for the marriage expenses.

It is performed by a woman with a species of fine stone brought generally from Achin; sometimes a fine steel file is substituted: the patient reclines on her back, during the operation; it lasts about an hour, and has been described to me, as producing a peculiarly harsh and unpleasant sensation, similar to that caused by the action of strong mineral acids. The teeth are generally filed down about a quarter of their height. After the operation, the gums not unfrequently remain in a swollen and painful state for two or three days. The *berasa gigi* is performed on males at an uncertain period, but generally in early age, and is,

* At Malacca, there is an annual esxa to the tomb of Wali Ismael, on *Pulo Besar*.

as Mr. MARSDEN observes, generally the occasion of some family festival; as, also, is the ceremony of boring the female's ear.

The Malays imagine the process of filing down the teeth as indispensable to personal beauty; together with the subsequent operation of blackening them. This is done by the repeated application of a black liquid termed *grang*, obtained by burning cocoanut-shells on iron plates.

Marriages are not contracted at so early an age as among the moslems of India, but, as there, the parties chiefly interested have least to do in selecting their future partners for life. The alliance is first agreed on by the friends of both parties, generally the matrons. After this, a few friends of the bridegroom elect, wait upon the bride's father, and present him with a ring and a small donation of clothes; the marriage expenses, which are paid by the man's friends, are then agreed on. The *Mahr*, or marriage portion of the wife is also paid by the man, and ought to be always a tahil of gold, or silver, or some other less precious metals, according to his means.* It is usually fixed at the time of performing the nikah, which is done by the khatib, before two witnesses on each part and a wakeel or agent on the part of the bride, who is not present, but remains at home. Thither the wakeel and two witnesses go to ask her consent as a matter of form: the ceremony is then performed agreeably to the mahommedan law.

The husband can then, if his wife have attained the age of puberty, carry her to his own house; if not, she remains in her father's house until the desirable event take place.

When the parties are wealthy, a buffalo is killed, and the friends of both parties feasted. The two inferior kinds of marriage common in Java, and self-prostitution, are rare in Naning, though instances have been known of husbands prostituting their own wives and children when pressed by debt or poverty.

Women about to be married cut off the hair, (this ceremony is called *Andam*) in front of the forehead. This is done, as well as the application of the *Inei* or *Henna* to the palms and nails of the hands and feet, three days before the marriage ceremony.

Of the ceremonials after death the following may be noticed:

If the dying person has possession of his faculties, he recites or has recited to him, the *touehid*, a form of confession of the unity of the deity.

After death, the imam performs *mandi* and *kafan*, or the washing and shrouding of the corpse; for this latter purpose, a long wrapper of cotton cloth, the deceased's baju, vest, and turban, and two heffafehs are used; the grave is invariably dug the depth of a man's ear.

The mussalman of India make a distinction in digging it: for a man, the depth of the navel; for a woman, up to the breast.

The corpse is then placed on a bier formed of two planks, the exact length of the grave, to which it is carried, followed by the nearest relatives; females sometimes attend in Naning, but never at Malacca.

The *selat jenazeh* is then read by the Imam, standing: the corpse is lowered down into the grave, with the two planks that composed the bier.

It is not deposited on the direct bottom of the grave, but in a side receptacle about two feet high: the two planks are then forced down edgeways, so as to shut out firmly this receptacle from the rest of the cavity, which is then filled up with earth thrown through some green leaves and branches, in order that it may fall more lightly, till the upper edge of the plank is concealed, when earth is thrown in, and the grave filled up in the usual manner: a little water is then sprinkled, and the bilal or panghulu monkin recites the *telkeen* on the grave, in a sitting posture, with his face turned towards the *kibleh*, in the direction of which also the head of the corpse is inclined.

On the third, the seventh, the fourteenth, the fortieth, and lastly on the hundredth day, fateheh oblations of spices, aloe wood and flowers, are made to the manes of the dead.

Their burial-places are heaped banks of earth, with two small wooden pillars * or up-

* It is however generally thirty serapie—a sum nearly equivalent to thirty rupees.

right stones at each end of an oblong carved wooden frame; the largest denotes the head; they plant the sulasih generally near burial-grounds and sometimes the jampaka and camboja.

They, like other muhammedans, believe in the examination of the corpse by the angels Munkir and Nakir, who enter upon their inquisitorial functions, after the funeral attendants have retired seven paces from the grave, on their return to their several houses.

RELIGIOUS FASTS AND FESTIVALS.—Their religious observance of the first 10 days of the months Mohurrum, the 28th of Safr, the 28th of Rabi-al-awal, the first 12 days of Rabi-al-akhir, the 10th of Shaban, the 30 days fast of Ramzan, and the first of Shaval; and lastly, the 10th to the 15th of Ra-al-Haj, resembles that of the Arabs more than the customs which obtain among the muhammedans of India.

The sacrifice of the buffalo is, I believe, peculiar to Malayan muhammedans. The buffalo selected for the kurban must be without blemish or disease, its fore and hind leg bones must not be broken after death, nor the spine: neither are the horns to be used for common purposes, such as the handles of krises &c.

The animal, to be sacrificed, is thrown down in a convenient place near the mosque, by the mukim, by his hind and fore legs being bound together; his head is also secured and turned in the direction of the kibleh, and water then poured over it; the bilal advances with the sacrificial knife, (in Naning the knife called *golo Rumbow*, is generally used for this purpose,) and turning himself towards the kibleh, recites the "bismillahi hellalan taieeban Allahu Akbar" four times successively, and then divides the wind-pipe and large blood-vessel of the neck of the animal. It is flayed after death, and divided into two equal parts. One-half is distributed among the inhabitants of the mukim; of the other half two chuppahs (a little more than 2 lbs.) is allotted to the Panghulu, the head to the kali, two chuppahs to the imam, two to the khateeb, two to the bilal and panghulu momkin or mukim.

The first-half is generally cooked and eaten on the spot.

On religious occasions, buffaloes are always sacrificed on one of these three days, Friday, Monday, or Thursday.

They are also sacrificed at weddings, births, circumcisions, &c. of wealthy people; at the "chukur anak," or the ceremony of shaving the head of children, and finally on going to war.

On these occasions, the buffalo need not be without blemish, &c. and is killed according to the usual muhammedan custom of the Zabbah.

In Arabia the camel is esteemed as the most acceptable sacrifice that can be offered, not only from the high repute, in which the flesh of this animal is held, among the inhabitants, but on account of its general usefulness. The Malays, in like manner, having no camels, select the buffalo, the flesh of which is esteemed, as before remarked, as the greatest delicacy imaginable; and every person who has travelled over the sawahs of a Malayan country, can bear witness to the utility of the despicable looking buffalo.

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* Those for females are generally flat and niched at the summit; they are called *nissan*, probably from the Persian *Nishan*.

SKETCH OF THE FOUR MENANGCABOWE STATES IN THE INTERIOR OF THE MALAYAN PENINSULA.

By Lieut. Newbold. 1834.

The inhabitants of the interior states of the southern part of the Malay peninsula particularly those of *Rumbowe, Sungie Oojong* or *Semoojong, Johole* and *Srimenanti,* derive their origin from the great parent state of Menangcabowe in Sumatra more directly than those of the other States. This peculiarity, with respect to Rumbowe only, has been cursorily noticed by MARSDEN and Sir STAMFORD RAFFLES. The former, quoting the Transactions of the Batavian Society, observes that the interior boundaries of the Malacca territory, "are the mountains of Rumbowe, inhabited by a Malayan people named *Menang-cabow*; and mount Ophir, called by the natives *Gunong Ledang.* These limits, say they, it is impracticable for an European to pass; the whole coast, for some leagues from the sea being either a morass or impenetrable forest; and these natural difficulties are aggravated by the treacherous and blood-thirsty character of the natives." If we give the author of this unpromising account due credit for veracity, we must, at the same time, acknowledge that the progress of civilization amongst these savages has been great, and the change in the face of the country corresponding. The forests are now certainly thick and some of the morasses deep. But during a recent ascent to the summit of mount Ophir, numerous incursions into the independant states of the interior, and a journey along the foot of the Rumbowe mountains, I found neither the one nor the other impenetrable or impracticable, and experienced nothing but kindness and hospitality from the inhabitants.

Sir STAMFORD RAFFLES in a letter to Mr. MARSDEN thus notices this state: "Inland of Malacca, about sixty miles, is situated the Malay kingdom of *Rumbo* whose sultan and all the principal officers of state hold their authority immediately from Menangkabowe, and have written commissions for their respective offices. This shews the extent of that ancient power, even now reduced, as it must be, in common with that of the Malay people in general. I had many opportunities of communicating with the natives of *Rumbo,* and they have clearly a peculiar dialect, resembling exactly what you mention, of substituting the final *o* for *a* as in the word *ambo* for *amba.* In fact, the dialect is called by the Malacca people the language of Menangkabau."

The foregoing remarks apply equally to the three neighbouring states, *Sungie Oojong, Johole* and *Srimenanti,* and as has been already observed, to Naning. It is also remarkable that in the old Dutch records the natives of Rumbowe and Naning are almost invariably styled "the Maningkabowes."

At what period these colonies from the heart of Sumatra settled in the interior of the Peninsula, is matter of conjecture. It is generally admitted that Singapore and the extremity of the peninsula were peopled by a colony from Sumatra in the middle of the 12th century, by the descendants of which Malacca was founded, nearly a century subsequent, as well as other places on the sea coast: Perak, Queda, Pahang, Tringano, &c. Antecedent to this the coast of the peninsula and adjacent islands are traditionally inhabited by a half savage race still known by the name of *rayet laut*; and the interior by that singular aborigines, the *rayet utan* or jacoons, of whom there are various tribes; but all that have fallen under my observation bear the Moongol stamp in their features; though the *semang* in the interior of Quedah is said to be characterized by the woolly hair and thick lip of the Papuan.

The Malays, however, ascribe the peopling of the interior states above alluded to, to a more recent and direct emigration from Sumatra. In absence of more certain historical information, the following native tradition may perhaps not be out of place:

"After Sri Iscander Shah had fled from Singapura to Malacca in the seventh century of the Hejira, a Menangkabowe chief named *Too Patair*, came over to Malacca attended by a numerous retinue. He ascended the river to Naning where he found no other inhabitants than the jacoons and *rayet utan* (the aborigines.) He settled at Taboo and married with one of the jacoon's daughters; an example which was imitated by his followers. This little colony gradually spread itself over *Sungie Oojong*, *Rumbowe*, and *Johole*, and other places chiefly inhabited by the aborigines, viz. *Jompole*, *Serting*, *Jellaboo*, *Srimenanti*, and *Terachi*. Too Patair was buried at *Lubo koppong* where his tomb is to this day venerated as a kramet.

"Thus the present inhabitants of the part of the peninsula spoken of here, are chiefly descendants of the Menangkabowes and jacoons or *rayet utan*:—and those of the sea coast, Pahang, Muar, Malacca &c. from the Malays who fled from Singapore and *rayet laut*, aborigines inhabiting the sea coast and islands."

The new settlers rapidly increasing in numbers, divided themselves into nine petty states called *negri sambilan* under as many chiefs or panghulus feudal to the Malay sovereigns of Malacca and subsequently to those of Johor. The names of the *negri sambilan* and the titles of their chiefs are as follow: Segamet, *Orang kaya muda*; Johole, *Johan Lelah Percasseh;* Naning, *Maharajah Lelah*; Sungie Oojong, *Klana Putra;* Jelaboo, *Akhir Zuman*; Rumbowe, *Lelah Maharajah*; Kalang or Salangore, *Tuanku Calang*; Ulu Pahang including Serting and Jompole, *Rajah Andra Sekara*; and Jellye, *Maharajah Purba*. These titles are hereditary. The nine chiefs, it is said, used to present themselves (*mengadap*) annually at the court of the king of Johore.

In a manuscript collection of Dutch treaties in the east, we find many contracts, chiefly of a friendly and commercial nature, with the nine *negris* of Rumbowe from 1646 down to 1759.

Prior to this period the Dutch had assumed considerable influence over the nine states and with the consent of the king of Johore, Sultan Abdol Jalil Shaid, elected a Bugis prince, Dyen Cambodia, as chief over the nine states; to which Srimenanti had been added in lieu of Naning which had fallen into the possession of the Malacca government. The Menangkabowes not relishing the arbitrary proceedings of a Bugis prince, invited over one of their own princes of the blood royal from Sumatra, Rajah Malaywar.

The Panghulus of Rumbowe, Sungie Oojong, Johole, and Srimenanti espoused the cause of the latter, whilst the five remaining chiefs took up arms in defence of the former. The Dutch, it would appear from an official communication addressed to the Panghulu of Naning in answer to a requisition made by that chief for ammunition to defend himself against the Bugis, did not take any active part in these hostilities, and pithily advised him to observe a state of neutrality and in no case whatever to intermeddle with such intestine commotions; informing him, at the same time refusing the ammunition requested, that, as being a subject of the Maatschappy, he need not fear.

Rajah Malaywar was successful & Dyen Cambodia retired to Rhio where he died in 1773. The four Panghulus who had espoused his cause, with the assent of the Sultan of Johore and government at Malacca, elected Rajah Malaywar as their sovereign under the title of *Eang depertuan besar*. He was the first rajah of the Menangcabowe dynasty.

The following stipulations, a copy of which is said to be in possession of the chief of Srimenanti, were then agreed on: viz. that the Menangcabowe sovereign should assemble the Panghulus on affairs of state and submit to a majority. That his maintenance be furnished equally by the inhabitants of the four states; each house contributing annually one gantam of rice, two cocoanuts and one suku.

Should a circumcision, marriage, or death happen in the royal family, each panghulu was bound to send three head of buffaloes each, and to distribute a certain sum in alms, (*sadkeh.*) and also to furnish a certain complement of men, arms, ammunition, and provisions in case of a war.

The election of the Eang depertuan besar, devolves upon the four panghulus; hence termed, *Panghulu Belantye*. It it their duty, on the decease of their sovereign, to write a letter to the Rajah of Menangcabowe, who sends one of his sons, with pompous credentials, via Siac, Malacca, and Naning, to Rumbowe, where he is met, acknowledged, and duly installed by the four panghulus belantye.

Hence Rumbowe is termed *Tannah krejan*. From Rumbowe the newly elected prince proceeds to his astanah or palace at Srimenanti which is the royal burial-place, and also termed *Tannah mengandong*. Peculiar *baleis*, or halls of audience, are erected by the panghulus for the Rajah's accommodation at their respective villages. That at Sungie Oojong is called *Balei Melintong* from the circumstance of its being built at right angles with the river: that at Johole, *Balei Berlinkat*, having two stories. It would be considered high treason to alter the form of one of these baleis.

The revenue of the four panghulus is derived from the power they possess in their respective states of inflicting fines and levying discretionary contributions, enforcing gratuitous labour &c. The states under them adopted the usages of Menangcabowe; which are in force up to the present time. In them is vested the real power, that possessed by the Iang de pertuan besar, being merely nominal.

On the decease of Rajah Malaywar, the Rajah of Menangcabowe sent over his son Rajah Adil who was the second prince of this line. Raja Adil died in 1795-6, leaving three children, Rajah Asal, Rajah Sabun and Tuanku Putre, a daughter.

Rajah Itam, also a son of the Menangcabowe prince, was then sent over and installed as third *Eang depertuan besar*; and Rajah Assil, the oldest son of the deceased Rajah Adil, as *Eang depertuan mudah*; this was done with the concurrence of the four panghulu belantye. Rajah Itam died in 1808, succeeded by Lingang Laut, also from Menangcabowe.

In 1812, Rajah Hadji, one of the sons of the Iang depertuan muda Rajah Assil, carried off by force his sister-in-law, in consequence of the Panghulu of Rumbowe's having refused his consent to their marriage on the ground of its being unlawful. War was declared against him and his father the Iang depertuan Muda Rajah Assil, who had sheltered the fugitives at Srimenanti. The Panghulu and Ampat Suku of Rumbowe then sent to request the co operation of Rajah Ali, the present Eang depertuan besar and son of the widow of Rajah Itam, by her former husband, Rajah Haman, brother of the late Rajah of Salangore Sultan Ibrahim. She was the daughter of the second Eang depertuan, Rajah Adil.

Rajah Ali, who had retired to a place called Sungie neepah, beyond Cape Rachado, lent a ready ear to this proposition and proceeded to Rumbowe accompanied and supported by the Dattu muda of Lingie. Rajah Assil, after some fruitless negotiations, retired to Naning (1813) and eventually to Malacca (1814) where he appealed to the British Resident Colonel FARQUHAR. Nothing however, favorable to his cause resulted. Having obtained a private loan of 2,000 dollars in Malacca, he again proceeded to Rumbowe, but failing, retired to Naning where he died shortly afterwards (1814-15) and was interred at the mosque of Bukit Tootoo near Fort Lismore, leaving 4 sons and two daughters. No obstacles now remained in the way of Rajah Ali's ambition, who was accordingly elected *Eang depertuan muda* in Rajah Assil's room.

Rajah Ali is about 50 years of age, low in stature, dark in complexion and of a forbidding and rather ferocious aspect; slovenly in dress, ignorant and superstitious; though for a full enjoyment of opium in this world he would willingly relinquish his hopes of the *al Firdous* in the seventh heaven, together with all its black-eyed houris. He is, however, crafty and determined, taciturn and deliberate in council, but prompt and decided in action; qualities I had opportunity of judging during a recent struggle between the Rumbowe and Sungie Oojong chiefs. These together with his high connexions, though not sufficient to give him a lawful claim to the eminence he has now attained, have mainly contributed to his success.

In 1824 the *Eang depertuan besar*, Lingang Laut, died, leaving two sons, Rajah Radin, of Srimenanti, and Rajah Ujong; both by his wife the daughter of the Rajah of Jellaboo. A successor was not appointed until 1826 when Rajah Laboo, a son of the Rajah of Menangcabowe, arrived at Malacca bearing the usual credentials from his father and a letter from the chief of Siac.

He was preceded by a dependant named Rajah Krejan. Having presented his credentials at Malacca, he proceeded to Naning unaccompanied by the Capitan Malayu, whom it was formerly customary to depute. From Naning, escorted by the Panghulu of Naning the present ex-Panghulu, he repaired to Rumbowe where he was installed according to usage. Here he married Tuanku Itam, daughter of the late *Tuan muda* Rajah Assil, and proceeded to his astanah in Srimenanti. In 1830, in consequence of his countenancing the licentious proceedings of his dependant Rajah Krejan and the intrigues of his wife, he was forced to flee from Srimenanti, but shortly succeded in gaining over to his cause, Panghulu Pakkat, the Panghulus of Johole, Srimenanti, Jompole and Sungie Oojong.

Rajah Ali, who was Rajah Laboo's bitter enemy, probably on account of his endeavouring to take the mudah-ship out of his hands in order to bestow it upon his own dependant Rajah Krejan, held out resolutely, though unsupported, in his mud fort, at Bandar in Rumbowe, against this formidable confederacy.

They attacked Bandar in 1830, but in consequence of the mediation of the Panghulu of Naning and one of their leaders being killed by a shot from one of the old iron guns of the fort, the chiefs withdrew their troops and retired to their respective states.

Rajah Ali, his son-in-law Syed Saban, and Rajah Radin, shortly after this, seized upon an opportunity afforded them by the absence of the Eang depertuan besar, Rajah Laboo, at Sungie Oojong, and falling upon Srimenanti, possessed themselves of the guns which Laboo had formerly taken from Radin under pretence that they formed part of his *kabesaran* or regalia. When tidings of this reached Laboo, he marched, supported by the Panghulu of Sungie Oojong, Klana Kawal, against Rumbowe. But partly in consequence of some horrid cruelties practised upon a woman by some of his followers, he was deserted by nearly all his adherents. The Panghulu of Rumbowe, Pakkat, alone remained. Rajah Laboo did not advance further than Naning, whence, after a short stay, he went down to Malacca and crossed the Straits to Siac in 1832. His dependant, Rajah Krejan, fled to Pahang, thence to Muar and Johole where he is engaged in fruitless intrigues. He assisted the ex-panghulu of Naning in his rebellion against government.

Such is the origin and decline of the Menangcabowe dynasty in the interior of the peninsula. Rajah Ali was finally installed as the Eang depertuan besar over the four states, and his son-in-law, Shureef Syed Saban, as Eang depertuan muda, at Bandar, on the 13th of September 1832.

The question of succession still remains unsettled. Among the elective panghulus, great discordance of opinion prevails, arising principally from the premature and impolitic revival of old, but contested rights appertaining to their titles, by Rajah Ali and Syed Saban. This has led to bloodshed, the strangulation of the tin trade at Sungie Oojong, and disturbances on the banks of the river, which are unsettled at the present moment.

A secret antipathy to innovation & a natural wish to revert to the Menangcabowe dynasty prevail; and on the death of Rajah Ali, if not before, a severe struggle may be expected between the partizans of the Eang depertuan muda Syed Saban, on the one hand, and the advocates for the *addat dhulu* (ancient custom) on the other.

Syed Saban, by no means insensible in this case that the best way to secure an advantageous peace, is to prepare betimes & vigorously for war, has, for sometime past, been engaged in strengthening Sempang, a fort advantageously situated on the apex of the delta formed by the junction of the Lingie and Rumbowe streams, which unite about six miles from the mouth.

Here he has lately been joined by a chief from Sumatra with a numerous train of followers.

STATES OF CALANG, JELLABOO, ULU-PAHANG, JELLAYE AND SRIMENANTI,

By *Lieut. Newbold*, 1834.

Of the nine interior states, or *negri sambilan*, formerly tributary to the Malayan dynasties of Malacca and Johor, four, already noticed with their dependancies, acknowledged the sway of Menangcabowe or rather of its deputed prince. The remaining five, viz. Ulu Pahang, Calang, Jellye, Jellaboo and Segamet, with their dependancies, adhered to Johor. This kingdom, however, was too weak to retain them all.

Calang.—Calang was wrested from her by a colony of *Bugis* who established an independent government at Salangore towards the beginning of last century, which has rendered itself formidable to its neighbours by the hardy, warlike, and piratical habits of its chiefs, but is now fast declining.

Jellaboo.—Jellaboo has been taken possession of by the descendants of the Menangcabowe princes, and is now ruled by an *Eang depertuan*, named Rajah Sabun, son of Rajah Adil, the second chief from Menangcabowe in the interior of Sumatra. This chief is looked upon by the superstitious Malays as a living *kramet*, from the circumstance of his having "white," or very light blue eyes with jet black hair.

Jellaboo was governed formerly by its *Panghulu* and *Ampat Suku*. They still retain considerable authority; the name of the present *Panghulu* is Abdur Rahman, his title *Akhir Zeeman*; the titles of the *Ampat Suku* are Dattu Meniang, Dattu Mantri, and Maharajah Senaro.

The tribes under them are those of Bodoanda, Tannah Dattar, Muncal, and Battu Ballang.

The form of government, & laws &c. obtaining in Jellaboo, are much the same as those of the states already described. Its population, which is divided into seven *mukims*, is estimated at 3,750, not including the aborigines.

The produce is gold, ivory, tin, (about 200 piculs annually,) aloe wood, jaggery, rattans, &c.; these generally find their way to the Pahang market.

The boundary marks of Jellaboo with Pahang, are nine meranti trees, *meranti sambilan*, growing on the right bank of the Jellaboo river; with Sungie Oojong, a hill called *Bukit Tanjoh* and *Dhulu karu Bandar Barangan*; with Jompole, the hill of *Bukit Dejalo*; and with Calang, the hill of *Gunting Perhi*.

Ulu Pahang and *Jellye.*—Ulu Pahang and Jellye are now tributary to the Bandahara of Pahang, a chief feudal nominally to the kings of Johor. Jellye is immediately governed by a *Panghulu* styled Maharajah Purba. It produces a considerable quantity of gold and tin, which go to Pahang. Both this state and Jellaboo, on account of their remoteness from the British frontier, have had little political connexion with the several governments at Malacca.

Srimenanti.—Srimenanti, though formerly considered as subordinate to Johole, asserts her independence, and has tacitly assumed a place among the four elective states, though her claims are not distinctly recognized. The *Panghulus* of Srimenanti, not being descended from the nine to whom titles were given by the Sultan af Johor, assumed, by the sanction of the Panghulu of Johole, that of *Setia Maharajah*. Since this, seven panghulus have ru-

led in Srimenanti; the six last of whom were Naham, Jallam, Allam, Pompoon, Talloon, & Talib.

Rajah Radin, one of the sons of the fourth Menangcabowe prince, Lingang Laut, assumed similar powers to those exercised by the *Iang depertuan muda* of Rumbowe, in this state, which he still retains, though now opposed by another candidate from Menangcabowe.

There are twelve *sukus* over the twelve tribes in this state: their names with their titles are as follows :

Amin, *Baginda Maharajah*; Olay, *Senara muda*; Molay, *Maharajah*; Manti, *Paduka besar*: Latteh, *Orang kaia bongsu* ; Arrib, *Sempurna Maharajah* ; Lesah, *Senara kaia*; Aggah, *Si Maharajah*; Eytut, *Orang kaia kechil*;—Badin, *Senara Angksa*;—Si Main, *Maharajah Lelah*, and Rejab, *Perdana*.

The names of the twelve tribes are: Sri Lummah Pahang, Sri Lummah Menangcabowe, Battu Ampar, Tannah Dattar, Sa Melongan, Tiga battu, Paya kumba, Muncal, Anak Achi, Battu Balang, Tega nenek, and Bodoanda Jacoon.

Srimenanti is the place of residence, burial, and contains the astanah, of the princes deputed from Menangcabowe. It is bounded on the north by Jompole : towards the south by Ulu Muar and Rumbowe, from which it is separated by the mountain of *Lepat Cajang* and *Gunong tujoh* ; to the east its boundary with Johole is the hill of *Bukit Peela* ; and to the west, the *Paro* stream and *Terachi* divide it from Sungie Oojong. The extent of Srimenanti is supposed to be about equal to that of Rumbowe ; its population is estimated at 8,000. The principal villages are those of *Srimenanti, Pinang saribu, Peela, Pondok Passir*, and *Terachi*: the two latter places now claim their independence. Like Srimenanti itself, they were formerly subordinate to Johole, and have been governed, for seven generations past, by their own panghulus. The name of the present chief of Terachi is Sulong, and under him are six tribes. The panghulu of *Pondok Passir* is named Ambong ; it was with this chief the ex-Panghulu of Naning sought and found a shelter after his defeat and expulsion in 1832. Part of Terachi was formerly subject to Sungie Oojong ; but during the late internal commotions and struggles for power, by which the Menangcabowe dynasty has been rooted out leaving the interior in a state of anarchy and confusion, the minor chiefs seized on the opportunity of asserting their independence, and in this unsettled condition they remain up to the present time.

The manners and customs of the inhabitants of Srimenanti, its revenue, internal administration, and law of inheritance, are much the same as those of the natives of the states already described. Its produce is tin, sapanwood, wax, rattan, and rice, most of which find their way down to Malacca.

A fresh tin mine has been lately opened at a place called Plangaye, the produce of which, during the last 5 months, has been 30 bhars of metal.

Translation of the credentials, called the "*Tromba Menangcabowe*," brought over from Sumatra, by the last deputed prince, Rajah Laboo.

The seals at the top of this document, are placed from right to left, according to the order of precedence of the Princes whose titles they bear, feudal to *Menangcabowe*.

According to the etiquette of Malay letter-writing, the place of honor for the impression of the seal is above the commencement of the letter, to its extreme right, on the first *mistar*. In letters from a subject to a sovereign, the seal is impressed at the foot of the letter.

* SEALS.

The firm in faith, by the grace of Allah, the great Sultan, Maharajah de Rajah, son of the deceased Sultan, Abdul Jalil Muazzein.

Sultan of Palembang, son of Sultan Indra Rahim, &c.

(Sultan Indra-Rahim was the first monarch of Palembang and grandfather of the Eang depertuan, Makat Denom, brother of Baghinda Alras.)

Sultan of Jambi, entitled Baghinda Tuhan, &c.

(Baghinda Tuhan was the founder of the dynasty of Jambi which extends to Chi Jambi of nine districts.)

Sultan of Indragiri, entitled Sultan Sri Rahil. &c.

(Sultan Sri Kahil was the founder of the dynasty of Indragiri, which extends to the sea.

Sultan Berkumbah Pootih, from Sungie Pakoo, &c.

(Sultan Ber umbah Pootih was the founder of the dynasty of Sungie Pakoo, which extends to Bander Sapuloh.)

Sultan Rajah Magat from Rossum, son of the Eang depertuan of Paggaruyong.

Rajah Magat was the founder of the dynasty of Rossum which extends to Koori in the Mampawa territory.

The firm in faith, by the grace of Allah, the great Sultan, Maharajah di Rajah, son of the deceased Sultan, Abdul Jalil Muazzein.

Sultan of Indrapura, entitled Sultan Mahomed Shah, &c.

(Sultan Mahomed Shah, was the founder of the dynasty of Indrapura which extends to Moco Moco.)

Sultan of Priaman, entitled Maharajah, &c.

(Sultan Maharajah was the founder of the dynasty of Priaman, which extends to Tiko and Kakanuli.)

Sultan of Achin, entitled Sri Paduka Berpakat Rahim, &c.

(Sri Paduka Berpakat was the founder of the dynasty of Achin which extends to Telaboo and Battu Bara.)

Sultan of Bintan, entitled Sultan Moheekat, &c.

(Sultan Moheekat was the founder of the dynasty of Bintan extending to Batavia.)

Sultan Tuanku of Siac, &c.

(Sultan Tuanku was the founder of the dynasty of Siac which extends to Patta Pahan, to Pulo Lawan, and Kajang Bunga.)

* The words in italics are part of those contained in the seals; which are of a circular form—the others attached, are explanations by the writer.

"Oh God! look down upon the greatest of Sultans, prince of great men. The shadow of Allah in this world, renowned among Arabs and barbarians, inhabiting this material world, (created for) the children of Adam; Oh! Lord of the kings of the earth, it hath been declared in the Koran that every day and night is to be accounted as void of light until the dawning of the true faith in the appearance of Muhammed, Syed al-Mursalin, the last of the prophets.

Amin! Oh God of worlds.

"The Almighty hath caused this firman to appear in the Koran, in respect to princes; viz. "I have created man infinitely superior to the angels, the sun and the moon. I have given him sovereignty on earth. I have created genii and mankind in order that they may worship me."

"The Almighty caused the dry land called *Pulo Langcawi* to descend between *Palembang* and *Jambi* as the place of residence for the original sovereigns of the world, viz. the descendants of sultan Hidayet Allah Taala, whom he had brought down from the clouds.

"Among these descendants was Rajah Iscandar zu-Alkurnein, whose country is *Trang*, and who is possessor of the iron key intensely green, sometimes assuming a red, sometimes a yellow and sometimes a white hue; and in short, possessing all colours so vividly, as to dazzle the eye of the beholder. This forms part of the *kabesaran* (regalia) of the three royal brothers who scatter profusely their justice and munificence to all the slaves of Allah; and to all princes, who are feudatory to them and derive favor and advancement from the beloved of Allah, Muhammed. These three sultans were very wise and faithful protectors of all the slaves of Allah.

"It hath been declared that the fountain in Paradise, *jennat unnahim*, causes the young shoots to spring up from within the earth; in like manner, the slaves of Allah, by inhaling the fragrant odours emanating from the glorious *balei*, (a sort of hall of audience.)

"Odoriferous as ambergris and musk are the prosperity and power of the three royal brothers, viz. the Sultan of *Room*, Sri Maharajah Alif; the Sultan of *China*, Sri Maharajah Dipang; and the Sultan of the golden island in the territory *Menangcabowe*, Sri Maharajah di Rajah Berdoulet. Amin, Oh God of worlds.

"Whereas the following are declared to compose the *kabesaran* (regalia) of his majesty the lord of the state of *Menangcabowe*: viz. the diadem of the prophet Solomon; the web called *Songsang kala*, which weaves itself a thread every year, until the completion of the duration of the world; the wood *kayu gamet*, which is divided into three portions, one of which is in the possession of the king of Room, the other in that of the king of China, while the third remains with the king of Menangcabowe. The Rattan termed *Manno Ghiri*, which erects itself. The *parang* chopper of gold. The *Chongka Chongkye* (a tray with a pedestal;) the* mass of gold, *kidah Allah*, (literally, the under box of God) resembling a man in shape.

"The gold *Jattah Jatti* to be suspended across his shoulders.

"The tree† *Naga Tarin* studded over with precious stones and rubies.

"The ‡ *Seput Pinang*, (betel cutter) *kapala bara*, which performs its office spontaneously. The § *Chori Semendang ghiri*, with one hundred and ninety notches occasioned by the wounds it inflicted on the serpent *Sicatimuna*. The mountain *Bongsye*, from whence the sultan ascends to the fiery mountain, and by whose supernatural influence, the rivers which flow from it, possess rocks of gold, and waters emitting odours delicious as those of flowers. The lance whose shaft is of the *Saggar Jantan*. The spear called *Lambarah*, with a sheath of *Gurda* wood; on which is inscribed a passage from the Koran. The kris, *Allang Bara*. The mat composed of *Lalang* leaves which is worn as an ornament to the head by Maha-rati, but forbidden by Maha-rungoot, who were co-temporary with the origin of this country.

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* This mass of gold, according to the information of a native of Menangcabowe, was what remained after the making of a crown of one of the ancient princes of that empire.

† *The Naga Tarin* is supposed to be a tree transmuted into gold.

‡ This wonderful instrument is said to be endowed with the faculty of ascending the areca trees and cutting the nut without human assistance.

§ See *Sejara Malayu* for an account of this combat which terminated by the serpent being cut into three parts by the invincible sword of Sang sapurba, traditionally the descendant of Alexander the great and founder of the dynasty of Menangcabowe.

"The elephant *Sacti*. The fresh-water sea extending a day's sail. The mountain emitting flames of its own accord.

"The petrified cotton. The *Gandang Saligoori*, (a sort of drum.) The *Gong Jejatan*. The *Gong Semandrang*, the sound of which reaches to the clouds.

"The hall of audience, *balei*, whose columns are of the *Jelatang* (a species of lofty nettle) and the beams of *Lendang* root. The drum *Pulut pulut*, headed with the skins of lice. The horse * *Sambarani*.

"The bell *Samedro Sambang hati*, whose perfect sound from the left, daily summons petitioners to the right of the imperial throne.

"The buffalo *Sibenoang Sacti*; the cock *Birang Sangunani*; the well *Sikatang*. The cocoanut *Nira balei*; the black *Langhudi* which is produced spontaneously; the paddi *Sitanjo bani*, on which his majesty the *Eang depertuan* feeds at mid-day; the paddi called *Sarumpun dendam kamara*.

"The flower *Sri*, the odour of which extends a day's journey; it is sown, grows up, produces leaves, flowers, and brings forth fruit in the space of a single day; the azure *champaka*.

"Such form the kabesaran of the *Eang depertuan* of Menangcabowe, the Sultan who reposes, cradled in the east, and on whose arising from slumber the *nonbet* is sounded. The Caliph of Allah, his majesty the *Eang depertuan Sati*.

"These are the credentials of the beloved grandson of the *Eang depertuan* of Paggaruyong:

"The bearer of this friendly document must be assisted and well entreated, both by sea and land wherever encountered; for the High God hath said, "First set your trust on me, "next on Muhammed, and doubt not."

"Do ye therefore, all our children and grandchildren, noblemen, merchants and nakhodas, agree in standing by and upholding our ancient usages which have been handed down to us by our forefathers.

"Should this document be brought to *Siac*, *Nila lawan or Pata aan*, to *Campar kiri* or *Campar kanan*, molest not the bearer by sea or by land. These injunctions extend to *Palembang*, *Indragiri*, to *Rossum*, to the villages and forest of *Tamboosai*, to *Battu bara*, to *Pulo Pinang*, to *Malacca*, *Quedah*, *Java*, *Batania*, *Susoo*, *Telabooah*, *Guttar*, and *Bencoolen*, which is subject to the Company, together with other places on the west coast of *Pulo Andalus*.

"Let us all, therefore, to the utmost of our power, place firm confidence in the great and glorious God according to our solemn oaths and the oath, *Bisa Gawye*, of our ancestors.

"Should any person, therefore, molest the bearer of these, he shall draw down on himself the ban of the Eang depertuan of *Paggaruyong*: his crops shall fail and his subjects shall not thrive; but on the other hand whoever receives the bearer with kindness shall be rewarded with abundant harvests and increase of subjects, and whithersoever he may go and settle, prosperity shall attend him whether around the island of Pulo Percha or whether by sea or land.

"O Lords of Lords and helper of helpers; the most wise God."

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* *Sambarani*, is a fabulous horse, celebrated in Malay romance—generally said to be winged.

TRIP TO THE JOHORE RIVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SINGAPORE CHRONICLE.

Sir,

Having observed in your last paper that you took some notice of a recent excursion to Johor, I have sent you, with permission of my fellow travellers, the accompanying account of our proceedings and if you should deem it worthy of occupying a place in your valuable pages, you are at liberty. Yours

VIATOR.

June the 17th.—We left Singapore at 9 A. M. at the top of high water, and although we had the ebb in our favor and only got as far as *Telok Koroan* at noon, when a fresh breeze springing up from the S. W. we were carried rapidly on our course. Off the small or westernmost Red cliff, we found we had got into very shoal water not having more than 6 feet and sometimes less—sandy bottom; our distance from shore apparently about a mile; we hauled our wind and kept a little farther off as well to steer clear of some fishing stakes as to get into deeper water—we however kept the same depth till off the large Red cliff; after which, steering for Johor hill, we gradually deepened into 2½ and 3 fathoms How far off this shoal extends we did not ascertain but at one time, when at least ½ mile distant from the shore, we had only 6 feet water. (this was at ½ ebb.) Ships ought, therefore, to be careful in approaching the shore between the two Red cliffs. At 2 P. M. having rounded the east end of the island or Point Franklin, which is called *Tanjong Changei* by the Malays, we soon got into deeper water and steered N by E. for the entrance of the river, and having a fresh breeze, we reached *Tanjong Booai*, at 4 P. M. when the wind began to fail; but having a strong flood tide in our favor, we kept under weigh, and with the aid of our oars reached the town of *Johor lama* a little after six. We anchored immediately and went on shore to enquire for a guide to take with us up the river. The people told us that the panghulu, or chief, was not at home and we could find no one willing to go with us that evening, but they said if we waited till morning we might get some one. As it was getting dark we repaired on board and got a little farther out in the stream to be ready to start when the wind or tide should serve. About ten o'clock, the same evening, a boat came alongside, in which was a Malacca-born Chinese who told us that he had come from Singapore to enquire after his brother who had been missing for some days, and who, he had reason to suspect, had been murdered by the people of Johor: he was the only Chinese there and kept a small shop. We told him we had no authority to interfere and recommended him to apply to the Resident of Singapore for assistance. He said that he was not afraid to go on shore as he had people with him belonging to the chief of the Bugis at Singapore; from which we infer that the Sulewatang has some authority over the people of Johor who are also Bugis.

Next morning at 2 o'clock, the tide having slackened and there being a light breeze with fine moon light, we got up anchor and stretched across for *Pulo Layang*, the wind not permitting us to lay higher. On approaching the Island, we had shoal water and saw a sand-bank a-head 3 or 4 feet out of the water and of considerable extent; it is called *Beting Layang*. Having tacked, we stood over for the east side, and with occasional favorable spurts of wind, we got several miles up the river and came to anchor at ½ past 4 o'clock to wait for day light as we could not make out the proper channel, the river being apparently about 2 miles wide

with the appearance of openings in different directions. As soon as day began to dawn, we observed that the tide set in the direction of the opening bearing north from us: we concluded that this was the proper channel and got up anchor and stood for it. At day light, we saw a boat a-head of us pulling over for the east side of the river, which we followed to the bottom of a little hill about 100 feet high, where the jungle had been lately cleared. There were two people in the boat, one of whom agreed to go with us up the river, with which, he said, he was well acquainted; he informed us that the hill is called Bukit *Soongai Fookoal*, and that in former days it was fortified, the remains of which were still to be seen. We therefore took our guns and went on shore to examine the place. On ascending the hill we found the top had been levelled and the sides scarped for about 8 or 10 feet; the extent of the work might be 50 yards broad and 160 long; it is now grown over with jungle, none of the trees, however, of a very large size. This spot must have completely commanded the passage up the river which is here not half a mile wide. At the N. E. end of the fort we found a tomb formed by piling up large flat stones and filling up the centre with earth; there were two stones standing erect about a foot apart; they were of the same form, 3 feet high, very handsomely carved, and in a good state of preservation. They are made of hard sand-stone and said by our guide (Inchi Salle) to be the workmanship of a Chinese and to be the tomb of Raja Tungko Putih; but he could not tell us when he lived or any thing of his history. The ground about has been lately cleared by Inchi Salle for the sake of the fruit trees of which there are a considerable number, consisting of durians, chompadah, matacoochin, lanjoot, &c. &c. The soil is friable, consisting of red earth and sand with vegetable mould; the subsoil, red clay and coarse sand. The rock, where it appears, is a ferruginous sand-stone. We found the prints of the feet of deer and saw some wood-pigeons and large wood-peckers, but they were very shy and we could not get a shot at them.

On ascending the hill, we found about 3 feet of the muzzle of an iron gun, apparently a six-pounder, which, from its fashion, is supposed to be of Spanish manufacture: we attempted to take it on board but finding that it would incommode us in our upward voyage, we left it on the beach where it is covered at high water. There is a spring of good water at the base of the hill on the N. side, and we were told that there is a stream of fresh water on the south side also.

At half past 7, we proceeded in our voyage and with the tide in our favor reached the village of *Gongong* at ½ past 9, where we landed to visit the tin mines formerly worked by the followers of his highness the Sultan. The smelting furnace is now in ruins and the bellows have been removed; the hill from which the ore was taken is about 200 feet in circumference and situated on gently rising ground about 200 yards from the side of the river. The ore lies about 12 feet under the surface, in a stratum of coarse quarry-sand, mixed with white clay and about a foot deep, under which is a bed of rolled pieces of quartz and beautifully white indurated clay of different sizes, from a few ounces to several pounds in weight. Some pieces of the clay, when broken, showed traces of iron about the centre; but the outside remained colorless. Above the coarse sand is a bed of fine white clay about six feet thick; above it a yellowish clay, and on the surface a thin layer of vegetable mould in which grows fern, coarse grass and some stinted shrubs. There is another mine which we did not visit: it was said to be of the same description with the one we examined: the ore appears to be in small quantities, and the natives we saw told us they could only earn 6 fanams a day by washing the sand and collecting the ore, but the work has hitherto been carried on, on a very confined scale and a further trial might bring a richer bed to light; this might cheaply and easily be effected by boring in different places. The ore is in the form of very fine sand; the same we understand, as it occurs in the rich mines of Banca; the clay appears well suited for the finer kinds of pottery.

The Chinese miners who worked the mines were said to be very subject to fevers which, from the description given by the Malays, must have been of the remittent and intermittent kind; this circumstance would certainly prove a serious objection to working the mines, but if the country around was cleared and cultivated, the healthiness would be much improved. The country around the tin districts in the neighbourhood of Malacca is also very unhealthy and particularly inimical to European constitutions, so much so as to be quite unin-

habitable by Europeans; this, however, does not deter the Chinese, whose constitutions assimilate to the European more than any other Asiatics. The mines in these places are worked entirely by them. This enterprizing people are, indeed, to be found throughout the Malayan countries wherever there is profit to be got. The mine districts on the Island of Banca are, we believe, also unhealthy.

The river is here about 300 yards wide and 3½ fathoms deep; the water is brackish during dry weather but after rains it is drinkable; but there is no occasion to make use of it, as a rill of the purest water runs close past the village. It is collected in a reservoir above the mine and was used in the operation of washing the ore, but must have proved rather scanty for this purpose. The inhabitants of the village cultivate a small quantity of sugar cane, pine apples, and pumpkins, for their own use and make cajangs which they carry to Singapore for sale. Opposite to this place is the island of *Leenaw* which extends N. and S. about 3 miles and is formed by a channel called *Salat Mandeenai*, which runs off from the main river about 2½ miles above the village; lower down the river there are also other two islands which we passed, formed in the same manner. They are named *Pulo Kayu anak kechil* and *Pulo Kayu anak besar*, the former about 1 mile in length, thedatter about 5½ or 6 miles. They are both mud islands and covered with low mangrove jungle about 3 feet high, the diminutive height of which may be ascribed to the want of a sufficient quantity of salt in the water. *Pulo Leenaw* is more elevated, and at its upper end, where the water is fresh the mangrove disappears and gives place to neebongs, and a little higher up, to rasau.

After having remained about an hour and a half at the tin mines, a fresh breeze sprung up from the S. E. when we got under weigh and sailed up against the tide. Three miles above *Gongong* we came to Bukit *Salooyat*, a hill on the river's edge, which is said to have been formerly fortified. Our guide told us that the old guns which were in the possession of the late Tumunggung were taken from this place. The hill is about 150 feet high. On the north side, a river also called *Salooyat*, falls into the Johore river; it appears about 150 yards wide at its entrance but it very soon becomes narrow. About 8 miles up there is a small village of 5 or 6 houses. A mile and a half above *Bukit Salooyat* is a place called *Tanjong Badam*, where criminals were executed in those days when the state of civilization in the Johore kingdom required such examples. The river is here about 100 yards wide and quite fresh at all times: the current must have been running at the rate of at least 3 miles an hour as we were unable to make any good way against it in a boat with 6 oars; so that after rounding another bend of the river we anchored to wait for the tide. We had here 3 fathoms water. The country on the right hand going up, is called *Maradalam*, and there is a small village called *Mainchoo*, a little way from the river side and concealed by the jungle. About 8 o'clock we resumed our voyage. On the left hand we saw a low hill called *Bukit Panate*; another a little further up called *Bukit China* and a third *Bukit Pahang*; at the next reach on the right side is the small river called *Kamandian* in the vicinity of which is the burial-place of the kings of Johore; but as it was beginning to get dark, we thought it more advisable to push on and defer our visit till our return. We continued to run up with the tide in our favor till past 10 o'clock when we found our passage obstructed by trees which had fallen into the river, here only 40 yards across; we therefore dropped anchor for the night. At day-break we observed the trees, which had impeded our passage, to extend quite across; the tide had fallen about 5 feet, the current running down rapidly. On our left the banks were low and covered with rasau; *(Pandanus L.)* on our right the bank was broken and about 8 or 10 feet high. On this we landed; the jungle was not very close nor the trees, generally speaking, large, but we saw one very fine banyan tree close to the river-side on which were great numbers of minas and pigeons: the soil appeared good but it is occasionally overflowed which has left here and there ridges of pure sand. We found a good many plants of laka wood which is a large climbing plant with strong thorns or spurs, an inch or two in length and sometimes a foot apart; it is only the heart of the old wood that is used for dyeing. The alburnum is got rid of by allowing it to rot after the tree is cut down, and it is soon carried off by the ants and other insects: it is this process which gives the appearance of fossil wood to the kayu laka of commerce. There were considerable quantities of rattans and we saw the foot-marks of a large animal which we supposed must have been an elephant, but our guide

said it was the mark of a rhinoceros. At half past 7 A. M. the tide had risen a little and the current was less rapid; we therefore proceeded up the river in a sampan, as we could not venture further in the large boats on account of the fallen trees. The banks up the river had much the same appearance for about 5 miles; having occasional patches of rasau where the banks were low, and at other places great numbers of rattans covering the jungle trees. Finding we could make very little progress against the current, only having 3 paddles in the sampan, we landed on a sand bank and as we considered ourselves if not the only, at least the first Europeans that had reached the place for many years, we took possession in form, as is generally the practice of Europeans upon landing in a new county; who thereby do not show much respect to the feelings or the proprietory right of the sable inhabitants. There will be few to dispute our right, however, except the denizens of the forest. We drank to the health of his Majesty King George the Fourth out of the pure stream, and for want of a flag we cut a green bough and planted it in the sand, as an emblem of peaceful occupation. The place we landed on is called *Lang Dampah*; the river is only about 20 yards across, but is 16 feet deep in some places; we observed that it was still influenced by the tide, although the current was running constantly downwards. From the quantity of drift wood and reeds we saw lying horizontally among the branches of trees and bushes, the water in rainy weather, must rise about 12 feet above the usual level. When we saw it, the surface of the ground was, of course, covered in some places; but the broken bank showed about 5 feet of a yellowish, clay soil, which the roots seemed to have penetrated with freedom: beneath was a stiff white clay. As it was past nine o'clock we determined to return; we reached the bank a little after 10 and proceeded down the river: revising the running chart which we had made going up, we found it pretty correct. From a reach of the river about 5 miles below *Lang Dampah*, we observed the west end of the mountain called *Pantai* bearing N. ½ west, apparently about 13 miles distant, and could observe with a spy-glass that it was covered with trees to the top: we judged it to be nearly 3000 feet high. Our guide having told us that the fort was situated a short distance up the *Sungy Kamandian*, we proceeded in the sampan about two miles up, when we arrived at a small village consisting of 5 or 6 houses with a cleared spot of country extending about a mile and a half in different directions; the ground swelling into gently sloping hills with a few scattered huts; one of which belonged to our guide where his family lives. The soil here appeared good, being a light clay mixed with vegetable mould and we were informed by the inhabitants that if the wild animals could be kept away, there would be very good crops; but as they make no fences they are very much annoyed by wild hogs and deer, and occasionally elephants. The mode of culture practised is slovenly enough, during the dry season the jungle is cut down and burnt, and without further preparation the ground is considered fit for growing paddy. The seed is merely put into holes dibbled for the purpose, and then left to nature till the crop is ripe. The following season, a new piece of ground is cultivated in the same manner and the same ground is never in cultivation oftener then once in three or four years. If the ground was hoed before sowing the seed, the crop ought to be abundant, from the stimulating nature of the wood ashes, and perhaps it would be the most economical method of bringing forest land into cultivation; for if the precaution was taken at first of destroying the vegetative power of the larger and harder trees, their surface roots would in a few years become rotten, and be easily broken and torn up: whereas the labor of clearing the ground from the stumps and roots of fresh-cut jungle is immense and could never be repaid by the produce. For the culture of pepper and gambier it is not necessary to clear the land of roots and stumps, and on the steep sides of hills it is even advantageous, as the roots serve to retain the lightest and best surface soil about the plants, which would otherwise be washed away in heavy rains.

Being desirous of examining the fort which our guide had promised to direct us to, we requested him to point out the way, but were disappointed to find that he was afraid of offending the natives, and it was with some difficulty that we at length persuaded him to accompany us. He appeared to have some superstitious dread of approaching the place and cautioned us against injuring any part of the tombs, telling us gravely that if we neglected his advice, some dreadful misfortune would inevitably befal him and ourselves. We promised to do no harm and he led us to the spot with fear and trembling. The platform which forms the

burial-place is 30 yards long by 10 broad; raised about 5 feet, and built round with brick and mortar. The bricks are about 8 or 9 inches square resembling those that are found on the Government hill at Singapore. There are sixteen pairs of tombstones; one of these is longer than the rest and they are all of the same shape nearly; but from their weathered appearance, they must be of more ancient date; they are made of the same kind of stone as those we saw at *Sungy Tookal*. The larger stones form the tomb of Sultan Mahomet the last king that was buried here. This, we understand, was the name of the Sultan alluded to in Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies, who, having fallen into the most depraved and vicious courses, fell a just victim to the resentment of one of his nobles about the latter end of the 17th century. In the reign of his successor, the Johore kingdom became entirely dismembered, & from being a state of considerable consequence has sunk into its present insignificance. Our guide informed us that there are the remains of a ditch which runs a considerable way into the jungle and includes the burial ground: the place is called *Kota tingeh*. After examining what was worth seeing, we returned to the boat to the great relief of our guide, who seemed to feel the whole time, as if a demon was about to pounce upon him.

About two miles lower down, we came to a sharp angle of the river where the eastern bank is about 20 feet high and worn by the force of the stream; hence it is called *Tanjong Pootoos*. On the convex side there was a ripple as if the water was passing over sunken rocks; this, in the native tradition, is the remains of the weir made by *Si Badang* celebrated in the Malayan Annals for his feats of strength; the story goes: Si Badang was a slave to a cultivator of the soil and was a very lazy fellow, being much fonder of fishing and other sports than of working, for which his master was wont to scold him. One time, it happened that for several days, he found his nets broken and the fish taken away, nothing being left but the scales and bones; he therefore determined to watch and find out the offender; accordingly, having set his nets as usual, he concealed himself near the spot and kept a good look-out; in the middle of the night, he beheld a demon of a hideous form with a long beard, go to the net, take out the fish and eat them. Badang, as may be supposed, was not a little alarmed; but having screwed up his courage, he ran down and laid hold of the devil by the beard and told him that he would most certainly kill him for taking the fish. The devil upon this, began to get alarmed in his turn and struggled hard to get loose. Badang however held on stoutly—the devil then said, that if he would forgive him this once, he would grant him any thing he might desire. Badang agreed to the proposal, but was at a loss what to wish for; if, said he, I get rank, it will only make me appear ridiculous, as I am only a clown and should not know how to conduct myself; and if riches, it will all belong to my master; but if you will grant me strength, so that I shall be enabled to tear up, by the roots, the largest forest trees, I shall be able to get through my work easily and give satisfaction to my master. The devil told him that he could grant his request, provided Badang would agree to eat what he (the devil) should vomit. Badang, not being very fastidious, readily assented, and the filthy process having been performed to the letter, he tried his strength upon some trees and found he could break them down with the greatest ease. It was this same Si Badang, who, having been chosen champion to the Rajah of Singapore, in a trial of strength with a Kling champion, took up a large rock which his antagonist could not lift and pitched it into the sea at the entrance of the Singapore river, where it still remains a stumbling block to the orang Kling; but the members of the Singapore Yacht Club have put a beacon upon it for the public benefit, finding that none of their number was strong enough to pitch it back again.

At half past six P. M. we heard a dog barking in the jungle and saw a sampan paddling quickly along shore; this turned out to be a hunting party consisting of a *blind man* and his wife and two boys; they had sent their dogs into the jungle and these animals, trained to the sport, drive the game into the water where it is picked up by the people in the boats; thus bearing some resemblance to the celebrated stag hunts on the lakes of Killarney! It is hoped that no Milesian gentleman will take offence at the comparison, as it is with due deference it is made.

About midnight we again proceeded down to the river and reached the village of Johore a little before sunrise. Here we landed our guide, & pursued our course to Singapore, where we arrived the same night at 9 o'clock having been upwards of four days absent upon our excursion.

Singapore Chronicle, August, 1826.

JOURNAL OF A VOYAGE ROUND THE ISLAND OF SINGAPORE.

The Resident, having received instructions from government to take formal possession of the island of Singapore and its dependencies, in virtue of the recent treaties with the king of the Netherlands and the native princes, left Singapore with his party for this purpose on the 2nd of August in the ship *Malabar*, of about 380 tons burthen. We weighed anchor at 6 in the morning, standing westward. In the evening, after beating against a contrary wind, we came to an anchor off the second or smallest *Red Cliff*. The Free trader, *Woodlark*, beating out of the roads at the same time, on her voyage to Manila, grounded on a coral reef close to where we anchored, but got off in the course of the night without apparently sustaining any injury. Early in the morning of the 3rd, we proceeded on our voyage, and by 10 o'clock were abreast of the hill of Johore which appears of considerable elevation at a distance, but is, in fact, not above 4 or 500 feet high. At 11 o'clock, Mr. Crawfurd, Mr. Forrester, and Lieut. Jackson, landed at the foot of it. The land is here elevated, but not very high and the rock formation consists of various modifications of granite and hornstone, with beds of jasper. From this to Romania (Romanya) the extremity of the continent of Asia, (a distance of about 20 miles,) the country is one dreary forest without human habitation or apparently the marks of there ever having existed any. Our Malay guides, however, informed us that indications of an ancient population did exist along the whole of this coast in the presence of bricks, fragments of Chinese pottery, and those stone pedestals which are used in the best description of Malay buildings. The sterility of the soil and the barbarous character of the neighbouring inhabitants, however, forbid us to believe that any part of this region was ever occupied by a dense and industrious population. At two o'clock in the afternoon a severe squall came on which split two of the ship's topsails and was accompanied by a heavy fall of rain. The shore party was exposed to it until 7 o'clock at night, when they reached the ship well drenched.

On the 4th we weighed anchor at 5 in the morning. At 9, we entered the Straits of Singapore, passing close by the eastern extremity of the island. At noon we came to an anchor off the island of *Obin* (the parasite close to the islet *Katam* (the crab) after passing the island of *Tokong* and *Si-jonkong*. We landed upon *Obin* and hoisting the British flag, took possession of this and the neighbouring islands under a salute of 21 guns. On the spot where we landed, were the huts of some wood-cutters who had been employed in building canoes and hewing timber for the market of Singapore. These wretched and temporary huts were the only habitations seen throughout the whole straits. *Obin* is about six miles long and the largest island in the straits—tolerably elevated, and as usual, covered with a great forest. Wherever examined, the rock formation was a small-grained granite. After going through the ceremony of hoisting the flag, we passed through the little strait which divides *Obin* from *Katam*. At the eastern extremity of it on the *Obin* shore, a remarkable mass of granite falls abruptly into the sea. This was covered with beautiful creeping plants; many of them in flower, and with some rare ferns and mosses, all of which would have afforded a scientific botanist a month's interesting occupation. Such a scene, in a tropical forest, is not so frequent as might be supposed; on account of the prevalence of tall trees without branches for 60 or 100 feet up, which are at once themselves inaccessible, while they exclude, in a great degree, the lowly plants which would be within reach. Passing over from *Pulo Katam* to Singa

pore at the point of *Talaram* we here found, with some satisfaction, but unexpectedly, a granitic formation as at *Obin*. Singapore has often been described in print as one universal mass of sand-stone; which rock, however, both here and in other parts of the neighbourhood, is, it seems, only a partial formation. The discovery of granite on the island gives reason to hope that tin will be found here as well as in other parts of the neighbourhood; and should this prove to be the case, as often insisted upon by the Malay and Chinese inhabitants, we need not dwell upon the advantages which security, freedom, good roads, and a ready market would give to working the mines.

On the morning of the 5th when a little beyond *Obin*, we landed on Singapore opposite to *Tanjong Biru* (Azure point) on the main land. No rock was exposed here, but the clay iron-stone of which beds are so frequent towards the southern extremity of the Malayan Archipelago. The territory of Malacca, for example, is one sheet of this ugly formation which always indicates a soil untractable and unproductive. As soon as a breeze sprung up in the morning the ship made sail, but a party in the boats continued to explore both coasts as we proceeded along. At noon, landing on the main shore, our native companions took us to view a bed of black muddy substance. A brook falling into the sea, exposed a section of the soil about 10 feet deep, three of which were composed of the substance in question which was of the consistence of glazier's putty, jet black, not heavier than common clay and not inflammable. Our mineralogical tyros could discover neither its place or name in the systems. Close to it, a ledge of granite rock ran into the sea.

Proceeding in the boats until evening, we passed the mouths of the rivers *Tamrao* and *Sikodai*; two streams of very considerable size issuing from the mountains of the interior of the Peninsula. The first of these is ¾ of a mile wide at its mouth and the second full one mile. At *Tanjong Sinoko*, on Singapore and not far from *Bukit Tima*, the highest hill on the island (not however, exceeding 500 feet,) granite was again traced. *Tima*, in the Malayan language, means tin, but whether applied in this case on account of the existence of tin in the neighbourhood remains to be proved; for there is no reliance to be put upon inferences drawn from the Malayan names of places. *Bukit Tima*, although not above 7 or 8 miles from the town of Singapore, has never been visited by an European—seldom by a native, and such is the character of the intervening country, that it would be almost as easy to make a voyage to Calcutta as to travel to it. We concluded this day's investigation by landing on *Tanjong Arah*, a conspicious bluff point on the main; and passing from thence to the little island *Srimbun*, and finally to Singapore. The granatic formation terminates for a moment at *Arah*, & at *Srimbun* and *Singapore* the sand stone and clay-iron ore reappear. At *Arah* we found great masses of decomposed white felspar, apparently suited for the manufacture of the finest porcelain.

The ship anchored at *Pulo Srimbun* on the night of the 5th; but we were not able to make sail in prosecution of our voyage until 3 in the afternoon of the 6th, in consequence of the flood-tide which had before set in from the east, now setting in from the west, and therefore in a direction contrary to our course. The meeting of the tides in the strait of Malacca from the bay of Bengal and China seas respectively, is commonly reckoned by the Malays to take place about the islets called in our maps, *Tree* and *Sand islands*. This circumstance taking place so much nearer to the eastern extremity of the Straits than to the western is, no doubt, accounted for by the openness of the western end, and the vast crowd of islands with which the eastern is shut up. At noon of the 6th we examined, in considerable detail, both coasts of the Straits which is here very narrow, not exceeding half a mile. From the point of *Arah* to the point of *Pandas*, about six miles on the main, is a tract of sand-stone, but at the latter place a small grained blue granite or scienite appears. The corresponding coast of Singapore is also sand-stone and clay-iron ore, until we come to *Pulo Pargam* (green pigeon island) where the blue granite presents itself. Beyond *Pulu Pargam* again the formation of Singapore is red clay slate.

On the 7th, we weighed anchor early in the morning and passed out of the Strait. It was low water, and near *Pulo Marambung* which is at the western mouth of it, we had but 2½ fathoms which was within a few inches of the ship's draft. *Marambung* is a small desert island chiefly composed of granite with overlying sand-stone and clay iron ore. At 10 o'clock we passed the mouth of the large river of *Pulai* which appeared about ¾ of a mile wide. Ac-

cording to the statement of our Malay companions, the bar upon it has two fathoms depth at low water and within there are from 5 to 7 fathoms to the extent of a day's voyage in a canoe. By paddling and rowing, as the river becomes narrow and shallow, a boat may ascend for 3 days journey in all. This river has its origin in the mountan of *Pulai* in the middle of the Peninsula, which is a conspicuous object to the voyager, being far elevated above the surrounding land. The banks of the river of *Pulai*, although so considerable a stream, are destitute of establishments and even of inhabitants, except the savages of the interior who hold no communication with the scattered Malayan fishermen of the neighbouring coasts.

We took three days in passing through the straits and our voyage upon the whole may be considered as rather expeditious. This was the only route of the first European navigators and it seems singular that the present more obvious, safer, and shorter passage should not have been earlier followed. Pursuing the old passage, 4 or 5 days at least are lost and altho' there be always, except at the western extremity, from 5 to 13 fathoms water, the navigation, from the occasional narrowness of the Strait and the occurrence, now and then, of sunken rocks, is by no means free from danger. It is certainly never likely to be frequented again by the general navigator but might occasionally be made available in time of war to avoid a superior enemy in the main channel, a view of its utility which an Englishman is little disposed to look to.

The scenery within the Straits, to a stranger but especially to a northern stranger, is highly imposing. An unruffled sea, endless wood of the most magnificent timber casting their evergreen shades over the narrow strait, present themselves for ever; but the absence of human, and even animal life, and of all striking and prominent objects of the landscape, deprive the scene of life and character and give it a stillness and tranquillity which are tedious, lonesome and uninteresting. The shore is here, as every where else in tropical regions, covered with a narrow belt of various species of mangrove *(Rhizophora)* and it is only here and there, at the distance of several miles, that a mass of bare rock presents itself and somewhat varies the monotonous scene. The belt of mangrove now mentioned is the barrier which protects the land from the encroachment of the sea. It does even more than this; it is the means by which new land is formed; and when we observe the process by which this takes place, it seems only extraordinary that, the narrow seas have not been choaked up by it altogether. This genus of plants, some species of which grow to the height of 50 and 60 feet, rest upon a cradle of their own roots—two, three, and four feet high—always inundated at high water, and of such strength as to afford effectual resistance against the action of the sea. The fruit, often a foot or a foot and a half long and club-shaped, plants itself in the mud by its specific gravity, and when it vegetates, immediately forms a strong arch capable of resisting the sea. The obstruction which the young plants occasion gives rise to a new deposition of mud, and thus the land appears to be constantly gaining upon the sea. All the mangroves are coarse, hardy, and prolific plants. One of our Malay companions said that he had lived fifty years and had never seen the mangrove without flower and fruit. He added an observation very characteristic of a Malay—that it was a pity the fruit of the mangrove was not fit for food, as in that case men might live happily without working!

After passing out of the old Straits of Singapore which the natives call the Straits of *Tubras*, we stood down to the Carimon Islands, (*Krimun*) desirous of visiting the tin mines which had lately been discovered upon the largest of them; and on the night on the 7th anchored within a couple of miles of the smaller island, opposite the strait which divides the two. On the morning of the 8th we landed on the great Carimon, about two miles distant from our anchorage, on a spot where a few huts were visible. We were received with extraordinary kindness by the inhabitants, consisting of a few Malays, and one or two Chinese. These informed us that the tin mines were round the N. west end of the island, and two of them accompanied us as guides to point them out. We passed between the two islands, and entered a bay about ½ of a mile in depth and as much in breadth. Into this there fell a mountain brook, which led to the tin excavations, not distant above a few hundred yards from the shore, and at the foot of a peaked mountain, the highest land of the neighbourhood and probably reaching 1500 feet. Both the natives and Chinese informed us that wherever the soil was laid bare by the mountain streams, tin ore was invariably found in considerable quantity.

Some specimens of this *stream* ore, to use the language of the trade, which we obtained on the spot, were of considerable size. One, which appeared nearly a pure oxyde, weighed 25 lbs. avoirdupois, but such specimens are unusual, the tin being commonly found in small grains mixed up with the gravel. The number of persons at present engaged in working the mines is about 70, of whom 17 are Chinese. The ore is very accessible, being found at seldom beyond four feet depth. The places indeed where it is worked do not deserve the name of mines, being mere superficial excavations made in the bed of the brook already mentioned. The miners washed some of the earth in our presence and in a few minutes produced several ounces of ore. An active laborer, we were told, if tolerably fortunate, will collect 50 catties of tin daily, worth four Spanish dollars. The monthly produce is only 200 piculs. This ore yields at Singapore, where it is sent to be smelted, 60 per-cent of excellent tin. By the more skilful process pursued in England, as has been fully ascertained by the experiment, it would yield from 72 to 75 per cent. The coast of the Carimons is every where bold, steep and rocky. Here the rock consists invariably of chert or horn-stone, but in the interior, especially at the tin mines, this formation disappears, and nothing is seen but granite with veins of white quartz. This last rock again protrudes on a low islet situated in the strait between the great and little *Carimon*, so that, in fact, the real formation is granitic, and the horn-stone but a partial and overlaying rock.

The Settlement directed to be formed by the Indian government at the eastern extremity of the straits of Malacca in 1819 was first intended to be fixed at the *Carimons* by the advice of some of the merchants of Prince of Wales Island, and with this view the expedition stayed here for several days to explore the place, which was finally abandoned on account of its rocky and precipitate coast and the difficulty of finding a sufficient quantity of level ground for the convenient site of a town. This difficulty, however, was not insuperable. The spot on which we first landed would have afforded such a site, although indeed much inferior to that of Singapore. The place, too, is several miles more distant from the common route than Singapore; but the *Carimons*, notwithstanding, have some advantages over the latter settlement. Singapore commands but one passage through the eastern end of the straits of Malacca, but the *Carimons* no less than four: the straits of *Sabon*—of *Dryan*, and both the old and new straits of *Singapore*; in short, every avenue of the eastern end of the straits of Malacca. The present roads of Singapore are hardly capable of military defence or at least not without an extraordinary expence. The *Carimons* might be rendered impregnable against shipping at very small charge indeed, for the bold and almost inaccessible rocks of its coasts constitute themselves a natural fortification. Singapore yields no valuable product whatever. The *Carimons* abound in tin ore which, under a fair and liberal government, might become a source of wealth to its occupants.

The *Carimons* are among the few islands in this quarter which are inhabited. The natives are of the race of Malays called *Orang Laut*; which means literally "men of the sea," but more correctly "fishermen." In general, they are unoffensive in their manners, but like the rest of the race, think it neither a sin or a shame to plunder when they can do it with impunity. *The Carimons*, from their centrical situation, are a famous haunt of the surrounding pirates, and it is seldom that the strait, which divides the two islands, is without some of their boats. A few days before our visit, a party of these marauders had landed, mixed with the inhabitants, and when they found their opportunity, cut the heads off three Chinese and walked away with their property. The whole inhabitants of the island amount to about 400. The largest village, containing 60 or 70 inhabitants, is at the head of the bay which we visited. It is a new establishment formed entirely for working the tin mines.

On the evening of the 8th we re-embarked and pursued our course towards Singapore. At noon on the 9th we were abreast of the two islets called *the Brothers* (in Malay *Pulo Takung*) and landed on the nearest, a low island composed of clay iron ore, sand-stone, and clay slate. The clay slate, which lies under the sand-stone, is a very rare production in this part of the world, being found only here and in another islet called *Pulo Saler* about 5 or 6 miles distant from it to the north. This slate, although of a fine colour, is soft and unfit for roofing slate. It might, however, from the facility with which it may be quarried, be used for flooring and other purposes of house-building. At 3 in the afternoon we landed on the *Rab-*

bit and *Coney* and took possession of them under a salute of 21 guns. These two Islets, so well known to the navigator, form the limit of the British possession to the S. W. and this possession in all, now embraces a circumference of full one hundred geographical miles. The *Rabbit* and *Coney* are two masses of sand-stone with a few trees. The whimsical appellation of these two islets suggests some observations upon the fantastic names which have been given to places in this part of the world; not only by European navigators but by the natives of the country themselves. There is scarcely any sense or meaning in the best of them. Pray, what is the difference between a rabbit and a coney? Dr. Johnson makes none. The objects which here suggested to the mind of an English sailor "a pair of rabbits," suggested to a Malay a "fiddle," *Pulo Biola*, for such is their name in the Malayan language! One of the islands a little further on is called by the Malays *Si Kijang* or "the roe," an animal to which it is no more like than to a whale! This name having, in a luckless hour, fallen upon the obtuse auditory organs of some pious christian mariner has ever since been called St. John's! Such blunders are frequent, and we have also reason to complain of the poverty of invention displayed upon this subject by the European navigator. Thus we have "Haycocks," throughout every part of the archipelago—"Brothers," innumerable—"Saddles"—"Buttons"—"Mandarin's Buttons"—"Humps"—"Camels' humps" and "Birds' islands" without end. We have "New Islands" as old as the creation—"Burning Islands," where there is no vestige of a volcano; and amidst eternal forests "Tree Islands," because amidst so much luxuriance they have but a single tree upon them. The Malayan names of places are commonly derived from the names of animals but above all from those of plants. Many, however, have no signification in the existing dialect & appear to me to be distinct indications of a language more ancient than the current speech. The Map of Singapore affords many examples of this description, and that of the neighbouring islands and countries would furnish a numerous vocabulary. This is a subject never noticed before and deserves further consideration.

On the evening of the 9th we pursued our way to Singapore and in the afternoon spoke the free-trader *Guardian* from Singapore for England & the *Hugh Crawfurd* from England for Singapore, by way of Sydney and Batavia. This last gave us an account of a formidable insurrection in Java. Beating with a contrary wind between *Middle Island* and *St. John's*, we had nearly run upon a coral reef. A large Malay boat, not 10 yards from the ship, got aground and received some damage. Between 11 and 12 at night we anchored in the roads and at day-break next morning landed, after an interesting trip of 10 days, the pleasures of which were not a little enhanced by the universal kindness and attention of the commander of the *Malabar*.

I ought not to finish this sketch without offering a tribute of approbation to the accuracy and utility of the map and survey of the island compiled by Capt. Franklin, of the Q. Master-general's dept. in 1822. In this department he left us little to do, except to add a few soundings and to correct some errors of orthography.

(Singapore Chronicle, November, 1825.)

ON THE MEAN TEMPERATURE OF THE EQUATOR, AS DEDUCED FROM OBSERVATIONS, MADE AT PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND, SINGAPORE, AND MALACCA.

By Dr. Brewster.

I have already had occasion to treat of the subject of the temperature of the equator in consequence of Mr. Atkinson's attempt to controvert the deductions of Baron Humboldt, which I had used as the data for my climateric formulæ, and to fix the tropical heat at a much higher degree than had been done by any preceding author.

From observations made at various places in Ceylon and Batavia, I was led to conclude that the mean temperature of the equator did not exceed 80½. Since that time I have taken measures to obtain observations made still nearer the equator, and I have been in expectation of receiving them through the kindness of a correspondent in India, whose zeal for the promotion of science is unbounded.

I observe, however, in the last part of the *Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society** a series of meteorological observations made at Prince of Wales Island, within 5° of the equator, and at Singapore & Malacca, within 1° and 2° of it, and as these are the very points where observations have been most wanted, I have endeavoured to deduce from them the mean temperature of these places, and thus to determine the mean heat of the equator itself. This element is one of the most important in meteorology. It is not only necessary for ascertaining the law of the distribution of it in different latitudes; but, by its accurate determination in different meridians, we may expect to throw light on that curious speculation, in which a connection is supposed to exist between the distribution of heat and the distribution of the magnetic influence over the globe. We shall begin with the observations at Singapore, as being made nearest to the equator.

1. Singapore.—North latitude 1° 24'. East long. 104°. The observations at Singapore were made with instruments kept under a thatched bungalow by Lieut. Col. William Farquhar. They were made at six in the morning, at noon, and at six in the evening.

1822.	Mean annual temperature at 6h and 6h, ...	79°	45
	do. do. do. 12h noon, ...	84	0

* We earnestly hope that Mr. Colebroke, the distinguished director of this flourishing institution, will use the influence which he possesses in recommending the establishment of meteorological registers in different parts of India, and in collecting and publishing in the *Transactions of the Asiatic Society* the various meteorological observations which are made throughout our extensive dominions in the East, especially those made near the equator. The council of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta have, we observe, taken up this subject, and we expect much from the enlightened zeal of its members. As the subject of climate is so intimately connected with the diseases of the human frame, we take the liberty of suggesting to the Medico-physical Society of Calcutta the propriety of taking it under their patronage, and of thus adding greatly to the already high interest which their memoirs possess.

It would be of the greatest importance to meteorology if a set of *hourly meteorological observations* could be instituted at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Singapore, Malacca, and some station on the elevated plains of Hindoostan. What we have been able to accomplish at Leith, and to continue for four years, and what has been accomplished more recently at Christiana and Drontheim by Professor Hansteen, may surely be easily executed under the genial sky of the East, and by means of the wealth and leisure which there abound.

In order to deduce the mean daily temperature from these observations, we shall make use of the corrections deduced from the hourly observations made at Leith Fort for 1824 and 1825. The mean daily temperature, for example, exceeds that of 6 A. M., and 6 P. M. by 0° 29, and is less than that of noon by 2° 51. Hence we have

Mean daily temperature deduced from that of 6h and 6h,	79° 74
ditto ditto. ditto 12 noon,	81 49
Mean of the two,	80° 47

As the corrections now applied belong to a northern climate, marked with the vicissitudes of summer and winter, they cannot be strictly applicable to tropical regions, where the variations in the monthly temperature are so exceedingly small. We have therefore deduced the corrections from the hourly temperatures of the three summer months, during which the variations of the daily curve must have a greater resemblance to those of the torrid zone. These corrections, though different from those used above, produce, as will be seen presently, very little difference in the mean results. These corrections are—3.08 and 3.00, and—they give

Mean daily temperature deduced from 6h and 6h	79° 37
ditto do. do. 12 noon,	81 80
Mean of both,	80° 18
Hence the mean annual temperature of Singapore for 1822 was	80° 18
1823. Mean annual temperature of 6h and 6h	79° 0
do. do. 12 noon,	83 7
By applying the same corrections as before, viz. those deduced from the summer months, we have mean daily temperature deduced from 6th and 6th	78° 92
do. do. do. 12 noon	80 70
Mean of both,	79° 81
Hence the observed mean annual temperature of Singapore for 1823 was	79° 81
And the observed mean annual temperature of 1822 and 1823	80 00
Mean annual temperature calculated from my formula of T=81°8 sin. D + 1,	81° 36
Difference,	1° 36

2. MALACCA.—North latitude 2° 16'. East longitude 102° 12'.

The observations at Malacca were made in 1809 by Lieutenant Colonel William Farquhar, and the instrument was kept within the Old Government house.

Mean annual temperature at 8h	77° 67
ditto do. 4	82 33
The corrections deduced from the Leith observations are + 1° 24 and —2° 97, which gives mean daily temperature deduced from 8h	78° 91
ditto do. do. 4h	79 36
Mean of both,	79° 18
But by applying the corrections deduced from the summer months only, viz. 1° 24'. and 3° 95'. we have mean daily temperature deduced from 8h	78° 91
do. do. do. 4h	78 38
Mean of both,	78° 65
Hence the observed mean annual temperature for Malacca for 1809 is	78° 65
Ditto calculated from my formula T=81° 8 sin. D + 1,	81 02
Difference,	2° 39

3. AT PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND.—North latitude 5° 25'. East longitude 100° 19'.

The observations at Prince of Wales Island were made for 1815, 1816, 1820, 1821, and for 1823. They were taken in George Town, and those for the two latter years were made

in the Library. We have also a set made on Government hill, but as we do not know the height of this station we cannot use them in the present enquiry.

1815-16. The observations for this year extend from June 1815 to July 1816. They were made at intervals of three hours, viz. at 6h. 12h. 3h. and 9h. P. M.

Mean temperature at	6h. A. M.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	76°	1
do.	do. 12 noon,	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	79	6
do.	do. 3 P. M. --	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	81	5
do.	do. 9 P M.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	79	1

The corrections for these hours, deduced from the observations at Leith are + 2° 61; —2° 5;—3° 20;—0° 43. Hence we have mean daily temperature deduced from 6h 78° 7

do.	do.	do.	12	77	1
do.	do.	do.	3	78	2
do.	do.	do.	9	78	7
		Mean of the four,		78°	2

But by applying the corrections taken from the summer months, viz + 3° 5; —2° 9;—3° 9;—+ 0° 7, we have mean daily temperature deduced from 6h -- -- 79° 6

do.	do.	do.	12	--	--	76 7
do.	do.	do.	3	--	--	77 6
do.	do.	do.	9	--	--	79 8
			Mean of these,			78° 4

Hence the mean annual temperature of Prince of Wales Island for 1815-16 is -- 78° 4

1820-21. The observations for this year were made at 7h A. M. 12 noon, and 4 P. M. and the results were, mean annual temperature at 7h -- -- -- -- 77° 8

do.	do.	do.	12 noon,	--	--	81 6
do.	do.	do.	4 P. M	--	--	83 1

The corrections for these hours deduced from the observations at Leith, are + 1° 98; + 2° 51; + 2° 972. Hence we have mean daily temperature deduced from 7h -- 79° 8

do.	do.	do.	12 --	79	1
do.	do.	do.	4 --	80	1
		Mean of these,		79°	67

But applying the corrections taken from the summer months, viz. + 2° 46; 3° 03—4.24 we have mean daily temperature deduced from 7h -- -- -- 80° 3

do.	do.	do.	12	--	--	78 6
do.	do.	do.	4	--	--	78 9
			Mean of these,			79° 26

Hence the mean annual temperature for 1820-1 is 79° 26.

1823. The observations were made only on the first eleven months of this year, and were recorded at 8h, 12h, and 4h. The results are as follows: Mean temperature at 8h 78° 85

		do.	do. 12 --	82	90
		do.	do. 4 --	83	89

The corrections for these hours deduced from the Leith observations are + 1°. 24;—2°51;—2°97, and we have, mean temperature deduced from 8h -- -- -- 80° 09

do.	do.	do.	12	--	--	80 39
do.	do.	do.	4	--	--	80 92
			Mean of these,			80° 47

But by applying the corrections taken from the summer months, viz. + 1°25;— 3°.03;—4°.24, we have, mean temperature deduced from 8h -- -- -- -- 80° 10

do.	do.	do.	12	--	--	79 87
do.	do.	do.	4	--	--	79 65
			Mean of these,			79° 87

Pulo Doncan is the first Island that will be distinguished from the group of islands forming the E. shore. Pulo Doncan are two low woody islands, bearing N. E. ½ N., distant 8 miles from Red Island; in passing it to the W., it ought not to be approached nearer than one mile, as there are some rocky reefs which surround it, from whence, and bearing N., distant 4 miles and a half from Pulo Doncan, the soundings are from twelve to seventeen fathoms. Cap Island, or Rock, so named from its appearance, is a rock of perpendicular sides, flat at the top, about 40 feet in height, and surrounded by a reef of rocks projecting about three hundred yards; the soundings near it are from ten to fourteen fathoms, decreasing as you near the island. Between it and the bluff headland is a reef of rocks, on which account it would not be advisable to go to the E. of Cap Island.

When abreast of Cap Island, Long and Round Island, and the Rabbit and Coney, may be distinctly seen. A direct course may be steered, to pass in mid-channel between Round Island and the E. shore, which is three and a half miles across; the soundings are from seventeen to twenty-two fathoms. Long and Round Islands ought not to be approached nearer than three-quarters of a mile, as there are rocky reefs ronnd them. In working and standing to the westward of the S. end of Round Island, go no farther to the W. than to bring the N. W. end of Long Island on with the centre of the Rabbit, as there are four rocky reefs to the S. W. of Red Island. When on the S E. end of the southern reef in a boat, Red Island was in one with the Rabbit; the centre of Round Island, E. ½ S. The soundings are irregular near these shoals and Long and Round Islands.

After passing Long and Round Islands, Singapore can be distinctly seen, and a course ought to be steered for St. John's, to clear the Buffalo, and a patch of dry rocks to the S. W. of the Buffalo. *Milburn's Oriental Commerce, 1825 Edition, p 350.*

Navigation of the Straits of Malacca.—The importance of our possessions, and the ascendancy which the late Treaty has given us in these Straits, render any information which may prove beneficial to the navigation of them highly useful and interesting, and we have much pleasure in publishing the following remarks and directions regarding the passage from Malacca to this port. These are from the notes of Capt. Rous, and the officers of H. M. Ship *Rainbow*, and may be relied on as correct.

"In beating up against a southerly wind it is recommended to commanders of ships to stand further in shore on the Malay coast than Mr. Horsburgh approves of. In his chart he delineates an extensive bank from *Formosa Point* to *Pulo Pisang*, running parallel to the shore at the distance of 4 or 5 miles, and directs ships not to approach the Malay peninsula under 12 fathoms. The line of approximation here appears to be quite erroneous, and ships may stand in with perfect safety within two miles of the beach, any where to the north of *Pulo Pisang*. By this means advantage is taken of the tide which is weak and irregular in the common track of ships.

"On reaching Singapore straits, if a vessel is unable to weather Barn island with the wind to the southward, she should bear up for the passage through *Selat Sinki*, or New Harbor. This will be found safe and expeditious for vessels under 600 tons burthen; but for ships of a larger size it is too narrow and confined. The entrance of the passage bears E. N. E. from Sultan shoal and is bold on either side, the only danger being a two fathom bank on the south side. After clearing the narrows and opening Singapore Harbor, steer along *Trumba Trumbaya* reef, a cable's length off, and when well to the southward, edge away for the anchorage."

The passage above described was effected with success by H. M. S. *Rainbow*, the first vessel that has ever come through intentionally. The *William Parker*, (a free trader) passed through by mistake some time ago, and it was generally considered a very dangerous experiment. The enterprize of Capt. Rous, has, however, established its practicability, and these notes and observations, which were taken with great care, will render the passage easy and safe for future navigators. In these operations we understand that Capt. Rous, was ably assisted by Mr. Bernard, Agent of Lloyd's, who came in the *Rainbow* from Malacca and whose practical knowledge of the Straits and islands made his suggestions and information highly useful, in exploring this unfrequented track.

(*Singapore Chronicle, August* 1826.)

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Hence the mean annual temperature for 1823 is 79°. 87. We therefore have

Mean annual temperature for 1815-16			78° 4
do.	do. 1820-21		79 26
do.	do. 1823		79 87
		Mean of these,	79° 18
Observed mean annual temperature of Prince of Wales's Island from three years observation.			
Do. calculated by my formula of T=81°.8 sin. D + 1			79 03
		Difference,	0° 75

From these calculations it appears that the mean temperature of three different points of the Malay Peninsula is *lower* than that which is deduced from formulæ founded upon Humboldt's estimate of the equatorial temperature. As we do not know the altitudes of the places of observation, a slight increase must be made in reducing them to the level of the sea; but this is too small to alter in any way the general conclusion which the observations authorized.

If we now deduce, from the same observations, the mean temperature of the equator by means of the formula T.

Equatorial temperature=———we shall have cos. lat.

Mean temperature of equator from Singapore observations			80° 03
do. do. do. Malacca do.			78 71
do. do. do. Prince of Wales do.			79 53
	Mean temperature of the equator,		79° 42

Hence it follows that the mean equatorial temperature is considerably less, when deduced from the observations made in the Malay Peninsula, than when it is deduced from the observations in Ceylon, Batavia, and Hawai, as the following table shows:

	No. of sets of observations:		
Mean temperature equator, from Ceylon observation	5	80°	66
do. do. do. Batavia do.	4	81	08
do. do. do. Hawai do.	1	79	67
do. do. do. Malay Peninsula do.	3	79	42
The mean of which, taking into account the number of observations in each set, is		80°	41

(Singapore Chronicle, January 1826.)

SINGAPORE HARBOUR AND STRAITS.

As the directions for Singapore Harbour, are not found in Capt. Horsburgh's work, it may be useful to subjoin those of Capt. Ross, of the Bombay Marine, who surveyed it in 1819.

" Ships that are coming from the E., have nothing to apprehend in rounding the small peaked island which is on the E. side of St. John's, as the reef does not extend above a cable's length off it; and just without that, the depth of water is from twelve to fourteen fathoms. Having rounded the peaked island, at half a mile, a N. or N. by E. course will lead to the anchorage, and twelve or fourteen fathoms be the depth; but when at one mile and a half from the island, it will decrease to five or four and three quarters fathoms at low water, on a flat which is two miles and a half long, and is parallel to the coast: there is no danger whatever on this bank, being soft mud. Continuing the N. or N. by E. course, you will deepen into a channel of twelve or thirteen fathoms, and again shoal rather quickly to six fathoms on the shore bank; after which the depth decreases gradually to the shore. Large ships will find the best anchorage to be with Peaked Island about S. by W., and the E. extreme of Singapore Island about N. E. by E, in five fathoms at low water, where they will have the town bearing N. W. by W., distant one mile and a half. Ships of easy draught can go nearer into three fathoms at low water, with the Peaked Island bearing S. W., and Johore hill on with the E. extreme of Singapore Island, where they will be distant about three-quarters of a mile from the town, and about half a mile from the E. low sandy point of the bay.

" The coast to the E. of the Town-bay is one continued sandy beach; and half a mile to the E. point of the bay, or two miles and a half from the town, there is a point where the depth of water is six or seven fathoms, at three or four hundred yards from the shore; and at six hundred yards a small bank, with about three fathoms at low water: the point offers a favourable position for batteries to defend ships that may in time of war anchor near it.

" The tide during the neaps is irregular at two and three miles off shore, but close in, it is otherwise. The rise and fall will be about ten or twelve feet, and it will be high water at full and change at 8h. 30 m. The latitude of the town is about $1^{\circ}\ 15\frac{1}{2}'$ N., and the variation of the needle observed on the low E. point of the bay, is $2^{\circ}\ 9'$ E."

A new route having been discovered into the Straits, the following directions are published for general information.

Directions for passing through the N. E. Entrance into the Straits of Singapore, from the Straits of Dryon, or Philip's Channel.

After clearing the Middleburgh Shoal either to the E. or W., a direct course may be steered for Cap Island, which lays near a bluff headland on the E. shore. This Island bears N. E. by N. from the centre of the Middleburgh Shoal, and N. N. E ‡ E from the centre of Red Island. On this bearing there is an extensive reef of rocks, distant one mile to the N. W. of the Twins. With a working wind, and standing to the N., a vessel ought not to approach too near it; the shoal of coral rocks is dry at low water, spring-tides. When on it, the North Passage Island bore S, Sabon Hill W., the E. end of Red Island S. and by W.: the soundings are from ten to seventeen fathoms round it, steep-to. After leaving Red Island,

APPENDIX.

SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE BATTAS.

THE BATTAS of the interior have an invincible prejudice to the sight of the sea, which they suppose to be the residence of evil spirits; and this circumstance, added to the little communication they have with Malays or people of any intelligence, renders all accounts of this singular race of people extremely vague and limited. The sources of my information are the chiefs of Tapanuli and Sorkom, the latter of whom have twice visited the Tohbah country, which is the parent state; consequently, these memorandums relate only to the countries interior, and to the northward of Tapanuli: excepting for produce, however, this description will answer for the countries to the southward of Tapanuli.—The Batta country commences on the borders of the Acheen districts in the province of Karoh, as pointed out by Mr. Marsden in his map of Sumatra, and extends to the back of Ayer Bonji south. The districts which are difficult of communication, and excite a desire of being known, are at a distance of from three to six days' journey inland. Their population is numerous, as may be well conjectured from the vast consumption of salt, which, it is erroneous to suppose, is eaten by the Battas in larger quantities than by any other class of people. Their stature is much above the middle size, and their voice uncommonly strong and sonorous. The country is open and cultivated, and the air keen and healthy. The space separating it from the sea-shore supports a race of people, inferior in stature, power, and wealth, but having a common origin with those of the interior. Whether the face of this part of the country, which is covered with impenetrable forests, produces a climate obnoxious to the constitutions, I cannot pretend to say; but it is evident that the inhabitants of these districts resemble those of the former in little more than their language. The population is also inferior, and their villages are at a greater distance from each other, on account of the necessity of choosing a spot favorable to cultivation and contiguous to a rivulet; for which reason they commonly reside in the vallies. I understand these parts to have been originally peopled by speculators, wanderers, and out-casts, from Tohbah; who, in the course of time, and from various causes, have established themselves into independent chiefships: hence the almost constant state of war in which they are engaged with each other. Among them, reside the Pangalongs, or traders, who keep open the communication with the interior countries by conveying thither salt, iron, silk chindies, gongs, and other commodities from the settlements on the shore, receiving in payment dollars, horses, and grain. The only mode of conveyance is on the backs of men, but in the interior, horses are made use of.—Having remarked the distinction between the inhabitants of the interior and those of the countries bordering on the sea-shore, I shall take the latter as the subject of these memorandums, which I shall proceed to state in succession, commencing with the most northern dominions of the Batta country.

KAROW. The men work mines, and the women manufature cloth and cultivate rice. They have been mostly converted to the Mussulman faith.

ALLAS & MAHTUMBULAN.—Cultivate rice and tobacco, which they carry down to Susu.

SE NANDONG.—Converted to Mahometanism by the King of Acheen:—similar occupations.

DEIRI DISTRICT. *Divisions*: SE KOHTANG, KASUJAN, TAMONGOH, BANNORIAH, BARUSOH, SIMBATUN.—Situated at the back of Sinkel;—populous;—divided into six parts,—producing camphor, benzoin, and wax, all of which are conveyed to that port.

TUKAH DISTRICT. *Divisions*: SIPANG, RAMBAY, TUKAHDULOH, & TUKAHUNBUN.—Situated between Deiri and the back of Bahruse;—divided into four parts—producing benzoin, grain, horses and cattle.

The following countries extend from Baruse to the back of Sorkom.

DOHRUTNABULAN; Produces gold in small quantities besides grain for home consumption.

PARAHBOTIAN, JEITEGODONG, PAGARSENUNDI. The chief employment of the inhabitants of these countries, is the transportation of the imports of Bharuse and the exports of Tohbah between the two places, besides which they cultivate rice.

PEIDUNDUN, PASARIBU DOHLUT. Produce benjoin, which is brought down to Murolotah Tongah, and a small quantity of gold which is collected after the harvest is in.

TOHBAH COUNTRY.—Situated in the interior of the foregoing disivions, and extending from the back of Sinkel north, to the back of Batang Taroh south, contains the following districts.

BATTUMAJAGGAH.—The inhabitants cultivate tobacco and rice for home consumption, but do not export any thing;—a bad tribe of people;—the resort of refugees and out-laws.

HUTABAUH.—Produces grain and a small quantity of scented benzoin, which is carried to Sorkom.

HUTA BALU and PANGARAN. Independent of the cultivation of rice, the inhabitants are the carriers of salt between Sorkom and Tohbah.

PARIPIAH and SEPAPEI. Produce grain for home consumption and exportation.

JEIKEKAHULI, MAHTITI, MENAPONG, DOHLOK SANGUN, SYNAHUTAL, SABUSHAK, and BUTAR. These seven divisions, surrounding the foot of mount Palakir, (which will be spoken of hereafter) situated in the southern end of Tohbah, consist entirely of extensive plains, where cattle and horses run wild. The inhabitants conceive this mountain to be the principal residence of all the evil spirits scattered throughout the Tohbah country, and offer daily sacrifice to avert their anger. Rice is the chief produce.

BAKARAH. Here is an extensive fair, and extremely fertile land, which frequently incite other districts at war to plunder its granaries. The country is so steep and hilly, that only one side of the houses has pillars, the other resting on the side of the hill: in consequence of the only level ground between the hills being swamps, which are turned into rice plantations, the inhabitants are obliged to choose these situations for their houses.

BALIGAH, MOHGANG, ULUAN, and ASARHAN. These four countries, the inhabitants of which manufacture clothes and earthenware, and cultivate rice and cotton, border on the large lake in Baligah.

PULU SERUNI.—An island in the middle of the above lake, the inhabitants of which occupy themselves in catching fish with nets, drying it, and carrying it for sale to the fair at Bakarah in barter for rice and salt.

The only mountains of consequence throughout the whole extent of the Tohbah country, appear to be Palakir and Mahtimbong. The former is both an object of veneration, from a conception the natives have, that it is the chief residence of the evil spirits; and a source of utility, because they are supplied from it, throughout Tohbah, with chunam to eat with the siri leaf; its surface being covered with cockle-shells. The only visible inhabitants are tame pigeons, which the natives religiously feed. These two mountains are the highest in the knowledge of the Battas. Nor does the Batta country seem to contain the source of more rivers than any other division of the island, though it has certainly the singularity of possessing a fresh-water lake in the district of Baligah in the centre of which is a large island well peopled. Sampans large and small are made use of for fishing and conveyance from, and to the island, to reach which, without a sail, occupies half a day; the whole breadth of the lake may consequently be paddled over in a day.—The only winds that blow over its surface are East, West, and North, on account of the direction given to them by the surrounding mountains. They are, however, sometimes so violent as to occasion a considerable surf on the shores, in which the sampans are sometimes upset.—The lake is bordered with a sandy beach all round, and is called Laut Towah. From this lake descends a river, which empties itself into the sea on the eastern side of Sumatra, the name of which I could not ascertain. It is also connected with the river of Batang Tano on this side.

I have already noticed the difference in stature between the inhabitants of the interior and those residing nearer the sea coast; their features are however similar; both being remarkable for an extraordinary straight mouth, not of the smallest size.—The clothing described by Mr. Marsden is very just, though the better sort, and rajahs who can afford it, wear very fine blue deitahs or turbans on their heads, and silk chindies round their waists: the commonalty are contented with a wisp of straw, or the bark of a tree, and coarse cloth of their own manufacture. These cloths are, however, greatly superior in the country of Anrohlo to the southward of Tapanuli, where great ingenuity and taste are displayed in the workmanship and introduction of such colors as they can procure, the lower part being ornamented with a vandyke fringe of variegated beads. The *Kampil Siri* or siri bag, is very neat, made of straw, and curiously ornamented with beads; one side of the mouth laps over like a pocket-book, to the extremity of which is suspended a string of beads three or four feet long, of various sizes and colors, ending with a little bell.—The pipe consists of a brass tube about three feet long, curiously engraved, with an ornamented bowl, and a stopper of the same metal connected by a small chain.—The arms of the Chiefs are generally encircled above the elbow with a bracelet of kimu or asuaso.—Earrings, or drops, of a triangular form, made of an inferior sort of gold are also the ornaments of a Rajah.—The women, as in most uncivilized countries, are paid little attention to, and their dress is nothing more than the coarse cloth tied under the arms, and not extending below the knee: the better sort wear vests of similar workmanship to the cloths of Anrohlo.

A kampong will contain from one to two hundred people, one third of whom may be probably children.—The houses in the interior are well built, of plank curiously carved, covered with iju in its raw state, and are sometimes a hundred feet long, without a divison in them: the parents and all relations live together, if they can agree, or the building can contain them. The entrance, which they close at night, is by a ladder in the centre from underneath: on every side of the house are large windows. The buildings of the inhabitants near the sea are miserable erections: under each house are the hogs, cattle, or buffaloes of the owner; and as these compartments are never cleaned, the appearance of a Batta kampong resembles that of a buffalo kandong in rainy weather.

The kampongs, in times of hostility, are enclosed with a parapet of sod about four feet high, outside of which are one, two, and even three, strong paggars of split camphor trees, reaching to the height of the windows of the houses, furnished with platforms in the inside for the besieged to fire from; and the whole is surrounded with an abbalis of briers and well planted with ranjaus. The entrance is narrow, and over it is a platform protected by briers, from which they fire on those approaching; the gate or door is strong, and closed by timber wedged against it.

The principal occupation of every member of a family is husbandry. The low grounds are ploughed; the hills are simply cleared of their wood.—The tobacco planted in the northern and interior country is of an inferior quality, and is smoked nearly in a green state. What I have seen is shreded like the Java tobacco.—The cloth is made by the women.—The country abounding with sulphur and saltpetre, every chief manufactures his own powder, but it is coarse and will not long preserve its strength.

Their knowledge of the efficacy of particular shrubs, herbs, and roots, for the removal of many disorders, and healing of sores, and wounds, is extensive; and they are not less expert in the selection and administration of different poisons, from those of the most deadly and sudden nature, to others less violent, though of equally fatal effect. I have seen many suffering under the effects of the latter. The victim of revenge is not insensible of his situation, and sees the mournful prospect of many years to be passed in pain and torment, for the gratification of his implacable enemy. *Soom*, a China medicine, (for a small stick of which, three or four inches long, a hundred dollars is paid) is the only antidote to these poisons; but it is so seldom to be procured, and the circumstances of the person are in general so inadequate to the purchase, that it is very rare those once poisoned ever recover.

The Battas with whom the Company's Settlements to the northward have communication, are a faithless, litigious, vindictive, and an independent race of people. I am sorry to say, I

cannot allow them a single virtue. It is only the dread of punishment from a superior power that will keep them in any degree of subordination, or excite them to the performance of their engagements. It is by no means uncommon for a chief to conceal his real inclinations with so much art, as to receive a compensation as a bribe from both parties, either for his assistance in the wars, or his opinion on a trial.—A dispute of which the value will not exceed ten dollars, is sufficient to set two kampongs or districts at war; though in this case, it is not so much the consideration of the sum, (for ten times the amount is probably expended before it is concluded, beside the loss of lives) as the mutual dislike to surrender the point which has caused the difference; and unless mediators appear from other districts, a war of this nature will continue for months and years. They carry their revenge to such an extent as to eat their prisoners. Should the adverse party have attempted to burn the kampong, or should the war happen to be on a point of consequence, if they cannot vent their hatred in a public manner, they resort to their favorite resource, poison. Some idea of their obstinacy or independence (I believe it should be termed the former) may be obtained from the conduct of Batta koolies, hired to work in the Company's Settlements: they will continue their services as long only as they please; so that unloading a cargo of salt with dispatch, depends on their good humour; the instant an example is made of those who are unwilling to proceed in their work, the rest run away to the main, and leave you to finish the business as you can. The rajahs have no authority over them, and your only satisfaction is the curtailing of their wages, which they willingly admit from a consciousness that they have gained their point, & can in future have an opportunity of retaliating, by refusing their services. This circumstance, (although the inconvenience attending it is now removed) is sufficient to give you an idea of the impossibility of urging the execution of any scheme or plan contrary to their real wishes, even when supported by the opinion and concurrence of their chief.

The authority of a Chief is hereditary to the son or brother, and founded solely on his abilities in regard to the sway he has among his people: his right to that part of the country no one will dispute, but if he be not prompt to resent insult; ready to take advantage of the weak and credulous; endowed with facility of speech and argument; bold in war and rapine; he has but few adherents; who, in return for their services, require from him those qualities, which will protect them in their agricultural pursuits during peace, and lead them to victory in war. Every kampong of consequence is well furnished with matchlocks, and being easily supplied with powder and ball of their own manufacture, they frequently practise firing at a mark, and are in general excellent shots.

The Rajah and his adherents being unanimous in the necessity of having recourse to arms, (all discussions of a public nature requiring the presence of the commonalty) presents and messages are dispatched to other rajahs to join or preserve their neutrality. This being ascertained, the people are collected by each chief, feasted on buffalo meat, and the cause of the war is loudly proclaimed, accompanied with the music of gongs, drums, and fifes. During this they supplicate the anger of evil spirits that their undertaking may succeed, and every man binds himself by oath to be true to the cause, in taking of which, he participates of the buffalo. The next thing is to announce the declaration of war to their enemies, which is done by erecting in the road leading to their kampong a number of reeds, and the wooden figure of a human face on a post, from which a bamboo containing the cause of enmity is suspended. A matchlock is then fired to draw attention to the spot, and the party returns. After this, every opportunity is taken for annoying each other, and the war is the cause of much privation and confinement; as the husbandman is afraid to work in his ladang lest he should be shot or carried off by a party of the enemy, of whom there are always small detachments on the look-out for the defenceless. Day-break is generally the time of attack, superstition prohibiting any other part of the twenty-four hours to be so appropriated.

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SHORT ACCOUNT of TIMOR, ROTTI, SAVU, SALOR, &c.

TIMOR.

THE Island of Timor, situated between the 8th and 11th degrees of south latitude, and the 123d and 127th of east longitude, is throughout a hilly country. Many of the hills are of a considerable height, and conical, but it is not known that any volcanoes exist. The whole island is subject to frequent earthquakes, several generally occurring yearly, but more particularly in the months of November and December, at the change of the monsoon, and if the rains are late, they are the more severe. The church and government-house of Coupang were thrown down by one in 1794, since which they have not been re-built.

The vallies are generally very narrow, with steep sides, but, in a few instances, open into plains of a considerable extent: one of the largest is at the bottom of Coupang bay, and is certainly not less than ten miles square.

The rivers are all small, and so steep that there are not any of them navigable beyond the influence of the tide, which is seldom above four hundred yards, and the flattest not two miles. The rise of tide at full and change is about nine feet.

There are several anchorages along the N. W. coast during the S. E. monsoon, but Delli and Coupang alone deserve the name of harbours. Delli harbour, situated on the N. E. part of the coast, is open to all winds from W. N. W. to E. N. E. but is perfectly defended from the sea by a reef of rocks, (dry in some parts at low water) which extend across it, leaving only two narrow passages through them, one from the N. W. and a smaller one from the N. E. The first alone is capable of admitting large ships. A pilot establishment is kept up and all vessels entering must pay pilotage.

Coupang harbour is on the S. W. part of the coast; it is a large bay, about twelve miles wide at the mouth, and upwards of twenty deep; it is formed by the Island of Semao to the S. W. and a point of Timor to the north.

Fort Concordia is situated on the south side of the bay, near the Straits of Semao. At the distance of from one to three quarters of a mile off shore, (the flagstaff of the fort bearing from S. to S. W.) is found excellent anchorage in the easterly monsoon, in from ten to twelve fathoms of water; clear, muddy, bottom. But as the bay is entirely open to the N. W. ships cannot lay there at that season, but are perfectly sheltered either on the north side of the bay, under a small Island called Pulo Tekoos, or in the Straits of Semao. The water shoals very gradually into the bottom of the bay, and the mud is so soft that a ship going on shore there in a gale of wind would not receive any damage.

The Dutch and Portuguese between them claim the entire sovereignty of the Island; Fort Concordia being the seat of government of the former, and Delli of the latter. The power of each at the present day is decreased so much, that their authority is only acknowledged by such of the Chiefs as need their assistance against their more powerful neighbours; whilst the others are either in open rebellion against their respective governments, or in peaceful, but avowed, independence.

The nominal boundary of the two governments cannot be formed by a line drawn in any direction, as some of the petty states near Delli are under the Dutch, whilst others near Coupang are under the Portuguese. It is however considered that the whole of the country to the east of Delli belongs to the Portuguese, and the whole of the south coast, which has at present entirely thrown off its allegiance, properly belongs to the Dutch. Along the N. W. coast the two governments are completely mixed.

Gold is found in several of the rivers of Timor, both in lumps and dust; some of the lumps are large, weighing fully two ounces. Two of the most productive rivers are situated within the Dutch government; they take their rise near the centre of the Island in the emperor of Amacoona's country, and taking opposite courses, one falls into the north, and the other into south sea. The latter was seized about ten years ago by the rebel chief of Amanoobang, who has retained it ever since. From a superstitious motive, the natives have an unconquerable objection to any person's taking the gold from those rivers, and except in very rare instances, do not ever touch it themselves. On those occasions they do not presume to touch it until they have sacrificed a human being to the deity of the river, and then take only a very small quantity, never using it in traffic.

Copper is said to abound in the Phdaran hills, situated near the centre of the N. W. side of the Island, the chief of which acknowledges the authority of Coupang. The specimens procured are large lumps of native copper, imbedded in hard, white, shining stone, and when dissolved in aquæ fortis do not leave any residue.

Those are the only metals known to exist, but from the appearance of the country, it is not improbable iron may also be found: that it presents the finest, and most interesting, field for mineralogical enquiries of any island of equal extent in this sea, appears to be the case from every account that can be heard of it.

The natives are generally of a very dark colour, with frizzled, bushy, hair; but less inclining to the Papuans than the natives of Ende. They are below the middle size, and rather slight in their figure. In countenance they more nearly resemble the south sea islanders than any of the Malay tribes.

The dress of the men of the rank of peasant, and of the women of the same class, is a cloth only, without any *baju*. The rajas generally wear *bajus* of silk, or chintz, with five or six handkerchiefs, of different colours, wrapped loosely round their heads. Their ornaments chiefly consist of arm-rings of gold, silver, or ivory, with feathers in their heads, generally made from the tail feathers of the cock. The two latter may be worn by all descriptions of people, but the gold and silver ones, only by the nobility, unless by the express permission of the sovereign, as a reward for some heroic exploit, such as procuring the head of an enemy in battle. The women wear arm and ankle-rings of earthen ware, of much the same make and description as those worn by women in India.

There does not appear to be any regular system of laws in existence amongst them, not even traditionary; the will of the sovereign being in most cases attended to. Their punishments are very severe, being slavery for petty offences, and death for many crimes amongst the lower classes; but with those who are possessed of property it is, in general, commuted to fines proportioned to the means of the delinquent; not having any fixed sum as an equivalent for the life of a man, as on Celebes and Sumbawa.

Within the actual influence of the European government of Coupang, the same system of native laws are in use as at Macassar; and the Court is formed by the native princes who are under the authority of government. Their session are superintended by the Resident, who has properly a negative voice only in all their decisions, although at present, from a very unfair influence they appear to have obtained over the rajas, they may be said, in all cases, to dictate the decison.

The religion of the island is pagan. Most of the princes, however, profess christianity, but are, at the same time, entirely guided by their pagan priests and customs. There does not appear to be a single convert to Islamism on the Island. Their deities are represented by particular stones, or trees, and although the same stones, or trees, are generally worshipped by successive generations, instances are said to occur of their exchanging them. They style them *Nieto*, or *evil spirits*, considering the sun and moon as the good spirits, the lat-

ter as the superior. They conceive it to be impossible that their good spirits should occasion them any harm, and therefore deem it unnecessary to pray to them, but they pray to the *Nieto*, to avoid the evils they are otherwise liable to suffer.

Sacrifices are common, generally of buffaloes, hogs, sheep, or fowls, sometimes of a human being. Annual sacrifice of a virgin was made to the sharks and alligators, close to the town of Coupang, until interference of the Dutch government put a stop to it, about thirty years ago. On the interment of a sovereign prince a male slave is, to the present day, buried alive with him to be ready to wait on him in the world to come; this took place immediately in the neighbourhood of Coupang, but has also been put a stop to; it still generally exists throughout the interior.

They place great dependence on auguries, particularly from the entrails of animals, and indeed never embark in any undertaking without first obtaining a happy omen. On occasions which concern the state, a buffalo is generally slain; but on private account, commonly a chicken. The liver is the part chiefly attended to.

The domestic animals are horses, buffaloes, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, and cats; the wild are buffaloes, deer, hogs, a species of large wild cat, and one kind of monkey, which are all eaten by the natives except monkeys and cats. Fowls, ducks, and geese, are scarce, but may be procured both tame and wild.

The cultivation consists of rice, maize, millet, pulse, yams, sweet potatoes, and cotton. Rice is not commonly eaten by any class; the very hilly nature of the country appears unfavorable to it growth. Maize therefore is their principal article of food, but except in uncommonly plentiful years, they are always obliged to depend for subsistence, during one part of the year on the sugar of the *lontar* palm: in some parts of the island a species of the sago palm is found and used as an article of food. A small quantity of potatoes are grown in Amarassie about thirty miles from Coupang, but they are not cultivated in any part. The use of the plough is unknown on Timor; a wooden hoe, and sharp pointed stick, are the only implements used in the hill cultivation; and in the preparation of their *sawa*, they turn a large drove of buffaloes in on it, and continue to drive backwards and forwards until it is worked into a perfect pulp; this operation is repeated three times with an interval of eight days between each, to allow the vegetable matter time to rot. The *paddy* is then sown as on Java. In collecting the crop, they never cut the straw, but draw the corn from the stock into a basket, by which a great quantity is certainly lost. This method however appears to answer very well, as the average annual crop from the plain of *Bow-Bow* is upwards of seventy fold. Irrigation appears to be well understood, but it is not carried to any great length, which, it is to be supposed, is owing to the thinness of the population. Cocoa-nut and areca palms are very scarce, but the *lontar* is abundant throughout the island. Small quantities of sugar-cane are raised, but never for the purpose of making sugar. Fish can scarcely be considered as an article of subsistence, as there are scarcely any of the natives who will venture into a canoe; and almost the only method they have of taking them is building successive walls of stone, one without the other in the influence of the tide, where the coast is flat enough to admit of it, so as to prevent the return of the fish with the tide as it falls.

The arms at present in use are principally muskets, a kind of very long *klewang*, or cleaver, & spears of iron or bamboo. Bows and arrows are used only by a very small proportion of the people in the interior. The loss of a head in battle is thought so much of, that in the event of a man's being so severely wounded as to be incapable of quitting the field, if the enemy at the same time press his friends so hard as to prevent them from assisting him, they immediately take off his head, that the enemy may not get possession of it: also obtaining the head of an enemy in battle is considered the most heroic exploit possible. This custom appears to bear a very strong resemblance to the North American one of scalping, as they constantly scalp their wounded friends, to prevent the enemy from doing so.

As the feudal system exists throughout, every man capable of bearing arms may be considered a soldier, being obliged at all times to attend the call of his feudal lord. But from the best accounts that are procurable, the rebel prince Amanoobang seems to be the only one who has reduced any part of his subjects to a state of discipline; he has about two thousand

men who have been trained to fight on horseback, nearly resembling the *Pindaries* of India, and who are consequently more troublesome than any other species of troops to be heard of in these Islands; often entering and plundering a district before it is known they are in the neighbourhood, and quitting it again with their plunder before any force can be collected to attack them. Their arms are muskets and *klewangs*. In consequence of a repetition of these attacks on the plain of *Bow-Bow*, Mr. Hozaart, acting Resident of Timor, collected a force of about seven hundred of the natives of Timor, Rotti, and Savu, and with twenty Amboinese soldiers, and some burghers, made an attack on the country of Amanoobang. After four day's march, he arrived at the enemy's batteries and succeeded in carrying two of the smaller ones, but was at length obliged to retire from before the principal one with the loss of twenty-three natives and one Amboinese killed, and a great number of the natives wounded. The raja had the prudence to retire from the fort at the beginning of the attack with about fifty horsemen, leaving one of his principal men to defend it, which he did most effectually. The hills of that part of the country are full of caverns, which have been taken possession of by Amanoobang, and converted into places of great strength, to which the women, children, and property, are sent on any rumour of an attack being made on him, a very few men being sufficient to defend them against a large force.

It is impossible to form any idea of the population. The inhabitants are said to be numerous in the interior and along the south coast, but very few villages are to be seen along the north coast, and those consist only of a few huts; it appears however the more general custom of the island not to form themselves into large communities, but to have one, two, or three, houses by themselves.

The trade is considerable, particularly at Delli, where regulations to prevent the export of produce from the different small ports under its authority, are much stricter and better attended to than at Coupang.

The Imports are coarse blue and white cloth, large pattern chintzes, and handkerchiefs with much red in them, with a small quantity of fine chintzes. China silks, coarse and gaudy patterns, China ware, coarse and green umbrellas, muskets and gunpowder. Iron, coarse British cutlery, Macassar *parangs*, lead, &c.

The Exports are principally wax, sandal wood, earth oil, and cattle, the last chiefly to the Isle of France and Amboina. The wax and sandal wood, in the Coupang market, are generally brought by the natives of Coupang from the south coast, in the months of December and January. The inhabitants of that part of the country are perfectly uncivilized, and do not acknowledge the authority of any European government. The method of trading with them is very singular, as they very seldom exchange words.

When the *prows* arrive off the coast, they land the articles they have for barter in small quantities at a time on the beach, when the natives immediately come down with the produce they have for sale and place it opposite the goods from the *prows*, pointing to the articles, or description of articles, they wish to obtain in exchange for it. The trader then makes an offer, generally very small at first, which he increases by degrees; if not accepted, which the native notifies by a shake of the head, should the trader hesitate a moment about adding more to his offer, it is considered sufficient by the native, he snatches it up and darts off with it into the jungle, leaving his own goods; or should he consider it too little, he seizes his own property and flies off with it with equal haste, never returning a second time to the same person. It is not easy to calculate the value of the entire annual trade of the Island, but the fair annual trade of Coupang alone, (which is not supposed to exceed one fourth of the trade of the whole Island,) has for the last five years, exceeded twelve hundred thousand Spanish dollars, by a reference made to the Farmer's books for that purpose.

ROTTI.

ROTTI is the largest of the Islands under the Residency of Coupang, and is situated at the S. W. end of Timor. It is about thirty eight miles broad and sixty long. It is at present divided into eighteen districts, under the government of so many Rajas, who when united, can bring into the field upwards of ten thousand armed men, and who are consequently of very great assistance to the European Government at Coupang, in keeping the rebellious chief of Timor in check, to whom they appear to have borne a most rooted antipathy from time immemorial. Seventeen of the Rajas, with about four hundred men, accompanied Mr. Hazaart in his late attack on the rebel Amanoobang and behaved very well.

The Island is a succession of low hills and narrow vallies; the soil is extremely stoney but productive withal; the rivers are few and very small, and the supply of water generally scanty The inhabitants are below the middle stature and considerably darker than the people of Celebes, but are remarkable for having long lank hair, whilst nearly the whole of the inhabitants of the surrounding Islands have frizzled hair. Their features are much more prominent, and they bear a stronger resemblance to the natives of India than to those of the Eastern Islands. The women are much fairer than the men and have many of them very pleasing countenances. They are esteemed a mild tempered people and are certainly not a jealous one.

The language, though many words are the same as in the Timorese, has such a material difference, that at the present day the natives of the two Islands do not understand each other.

The cultivation consists of a small quantity of rice, with Indian corn, millet, sweet potatoes, and *kachang*, equal to the consumption of the inhabitants in plentiful, but in dry, seasons, as on Timor, they are obliged to depend on the sugar of the *lontar*. Cotton is grown in small quantities, but the greater part used on the island is imported from Bontan.

Money is never used on the island, all purchases being made by the exchange of articles; nor do they appear to set any value on the precious metals but as ornaments, and those are only used by people of rank.

Their trade is almost entirely confined to the exchange of palm sugar with the Bontan *prows* for cotton; of horses and buffaloes with the whalers and other ships for muskets and ammunition, and of their bees' wax with the inhabitants of Coupang for such small articles of European, India or China, manufacture as they may require, to the annual amount of about four thousand Spanish dollars.

The teak tree is not known, but there are several kinds of wood much esteemed by the inhabitants of Coupang for *prow* building; they have also very fine ebony, and a kind of coarse mahogany, which makes handsome furniture.

Some of their Rajas profess Christianity, but the religion of the island is nearly the same as on Timor. Their marriages are merely civil contracts, but a man cannot divorce or separate himself from his wife without her consent, except in cases of adultery; a plurality of wives is allowed, but seldom occurs except amongst the higher classes.

They inter their dead under their houses, (which as on Celebes, are always raised several feet from the ground, whilst those of Timor are always built on the ground,) and the third day after death, invariably sacrifice some animal to the manes of their departed friend. These sacrifices are often afterwards repeated by those who can afford it, but custom only absolutely requires the first sacrifice. Their religion, customs, and belief in auguries, are in other respects the same as on Timor.

The slave trade was formerly carried to a great length on this Island; several hundred slaves having been exported to Batavia, Amboyna, and other Dutch settlements in the course of one year.

The different Chiefs have repeatedly resisted the European authority, and have at times given the Dutch a good deal of trouble. These wars have generally been terminated by making slaves of a number of the innocent and unfortunate subjects of those chiefs, and it may be

fairly presumed, that the old class of Dutch residents have often been the instigators of those wars for the express purpose of obtaining slaves.

Their domestic and wild animals are the same as on Timor; but their horses are considered as very superior to those of the latter.

The dress of the peasantry, male and female, is merely a cloth, which is wrapped round them close under the arms and descends to the knees; the young women do not suffer their hair to grow long until they are married. The men wear a kind of cap on their head made from the crab leaf.

SAVU.

SAVU is a small Island lying about sixty miles due west of the north part of Rotti, and is also under Coupang. It is hilly throughout, and very stoney, & the supply of water very scanty.

It is at present governed by four chiefs, whose united forces amount to five thousand men; the whole population is estimated at about five thousand souls.

The natives bear a strong resemblance to the Timorese in their appearance, but are of a much more violent and quarrelsome disposition. They differ in their dress from all their neighbours, the women never covering their bosoms, and the men only wearing a narrow slip of cloth between their legs, suspended before and behind from a string fastened round their waist.

The religion and customs are, in other respects, said to be the same as on Timor.

Cultivation is less attended to than in the neighbouring islands, and unless the season is favourable, their crops generally fail, when, as on Timor, they derive a plentiful subsistence, from the sugar of their *lontars*. They raise small quantities of maize, millet, *kachang*, and sweet potatoes, and a sufficiency of cotton for their own consumption.

Obtaining men for soldiers, as from Rotti, is the only advantage derived by government from this island. The domestic animals are the same as on Timor, and are very abundant; the wild animals are hogs and deer, but they are not numerous.

SOLOR.

THE Island of Solor is divided from *Sebrao* by a small strait, and is situated between the southern boundary of the Dutch government and the government of Larantuka.

The inhabitants are divided into two classes or tribes, the mountaineers, or original inhabitants who are at the present day perfectly savage, and the inhabitants of the coast, who appear to be of the Badju, or *Orang Laut* tribe, who acknowledge the authority of Coupang, and furnish one hundred men (who are relieved annually) for the service of government at Coupang, and are obliged to provide *prows* to transport the natives of Rotti and Savu to Timor, when their assistance is required. They have very little intercourse with the mountaineers, but occasionally obtain their wax (with which the island abounds,) and some few of the necessaries of life, in exchange for fish and oil with which they carry on a considerable trade with Coupang. Macassar and Sambawa *prows* also frequent their ports. The articles in demand are the same as on Timor, but their only articles of export are wax and fish oil.

The coast people are such expert fishermen that they constantly take the species of whale called *black fish*, which are often twenty feet long, and which afford oil inferior only to the spermaceti, having the same substance in the head as the spermaceti whale. They do not boil the blubber, but expose it to the sun in an inclined situation with a ditch at the bottom into which the oil drains.

Their religion is mahometan, but many of those on the north coast have been converted to Christianity by the Portuguese, who have, at the present time, some small degree of influence on that part of the island.

The neighbouring islands of *Sebrao*, *Pantar*, or *Alao*, *Ombay*, and *Wetter*, are inha-

bited by the same class of people as the mountaineers of Solor, nor is it safe for a boat to land on any of them unless well armed, as they are all cannibals; at times however, they are willing to barter their wax with the *prows* that frequent their ports, and even supply the whalers with stoc ; but the utmost caution is required in trading with them, as they are constantly on the watch, to surprise the unwary, and a year seldom passes in which several *prows* are not cut off in their ports.

The natives are said to bear a strong resemblance to the people of Timor, having the same kind of frizzled hair, and very dark color. Of their religion, manners, and customs, very little information can be procured.

At the islands of Rotti, Savu, and Solor, there are interpreters stationed from Coupang, for the purpose of seeing the orders of the Resident carried into effect, and to whom, generally, the most implicit obedience is paid by the native chiefs.

Ende, the principal part of the Island of Floris, or Ende, was formerly under the authority of Coupang, but within the last ten years, the place has been taken possession of by a colony of Buguese, who have not only declined acknowledging the European authority, but have refused to trade with Coupang. This port is situated near the centre of the south side of the island; has an uncommonly fine harbour, capable of holding any number of ships; and is the only safe port on the south side of any of these islands, from Java Head to *Ombay*. The exports were formerly very considerable, consisting of slaves, gold dust, bees' wax, cocoanut oil, sandal wood, and birds' nests.

Of the whole of this island, the eastern part only in the neighbourhood of Larantuka is in possession of any European power. The natives of that part have been nearly all converted to Christianity by the Portuguese, under whose authority they still remain; and large quantities of bees' wax, and sandal wood, are annually sent from thence to Delli. The Portuguese have a church at Larantuka.

The western end of the island, which is the part generally known as *Mangray* by the natives, was, until about twelve months ago, under the authority of Bima, being in fact a colony of Bimanese, and the place to which delinquents of rank were generally exiled; some of whom have raised a rebellion, and driven out the Chiefs, who were placed over them by the Sultan of Bima, and have ta en the authority into their own hands. All the *prows* from Bima that have gone to Mangray since the revolution have been cut off, but their ports are still open to Macassar and Buguese *prows*.

The Island of Floris, or Ende, appears from the sea to be very hilly in all parts, and on the south coast there are several conical volcanic mountains of great height. An explosion of one of them took place about ten years ago, the ashes from which covered the whole of Sumbawa: in extent it is inferior only to Timor, of the whole group of islands to the eastward of Java.

The natives live chiefly in the interior except at the east end, whilst the sea coast and ports are occupied to the westward by colonies from Sumbawa and Celebes. Very little is known of the manners and customs of the natives: in their appearance they approach more nearly to the Papuans than the natives of Timor, both in form of countenance and hair.

There are a great number of petty states, (many of them not consisting of more than one village) who are constantly at war for the purpose of making slaves, for whom they always find a ready sale on the coast: they are much esteemed as slaves, and become very good artificers; they are also uncommonly faithful to their masters, and quietly behaved. Great numbers of them were imported annually at Macassar before the prohibition of the slave trade; numbers are however still introduced on those parts of Celebes not under the authority of the European government.

Sandal wood Island (the native name for which is *Sumba*) was formerly under the authority of the Dutch; but about twenty years ago, they threw off their allegiance in consequene of the Dutch cutting sandal wood there: as they have a belief that for every tree of it which is cut down, some one of the natives is deprived of life, the tree is held sacred. Since that time there seems to have been little communication, and that only by the way of Ende. The natives are the same in appearance as those of Ende, but are said to be extremely savage, daring, and treacherous, in consequence of which the vessels trading with them must be well armed, as they often attempt, and sometimes succeed, in cutting them off; trade is how-

ever carried to a considerable extent with them by the Buguese at Ende, and considerable quantities of birds' nests, and bees' wax, are obtained from thence annually.

The Island is rather low in its appearance from the sea, not being much higher than Madura, like which there does not appear to be a single high hill on it.

This Island and Floris appear to be the westernmost islands on which the natives have frizzled hair, as the natives of Sumbawa and the islands to the westward of it have invariably straight hair. The form of countenance is also entirely different, and the manners and customs of the different natives much less savage and ferocious.

Sketch of BORNEO or PULO KALAMANTAN, communicated by J. Hunt Esq. in 1812, to the Honorable Sir T. S. RAFFLES, late Lieut. Governor of Java.

THE Island of Borneo extends from 7° 7' north to 4° 12' south latitude, and from 108° 45' to 119° 25' east longitude; measuring at its extreme length nine hundred miles, at its greatest breadth seven hundred, and in circumference three thousand. It is bounded on the north by the Solo seas, on the east by the straits of Macassar, on the south, by the Java, and on the west, by the China seas. Situated in the track of the most extensive and valuable commerce, intersected on all sides with deep and navigable rivers, indented with safe and capacious harbors, possessing one of the richest soils on the globe, abounding in all the necessaries of human life, and boasting commercial products that have in all ages excited the avarice and stimulated the desires of mankind; with the exception of New Holland, it is the largest island known. Of the existence of this extensive territory, so highly favored by providence and enriched by the choicest productions of nature, there remains scarce a vestige in the geographical descriptions of the day; and its rich products and fertile shores, by one tacit and universal consent, appear abandoned by all the European nations of the present age, and handed over to the ravages of extensive hordes of piratical banditti, solely intent on plunder and desolation.

The natives and the Malays, formerly, and even at this day, call this large island by the *exclusive* name of *Pulo Kalamantan*, from a sour and indigenous fruit so called. *Borneo* was the name only of a city, the capital of one of the three distinct kingdoms on the island. When Magalhaens visited it in the year 1520, he saw a rich and populous city, a luxuriant and fertile country, a powerful prince, and a magnificent court: hence the Spaniards hastily concluded that the whole island, not only belonged to this prince, but that it was likewise named *Borneo*. In this error, they have been followed by all other European nations. The charts however mark this capital "*Borneo Proper*," or in other words, the only place *properly Borneo*: this is the only confession of this mis-nomer that I have met with amongst Europeans. The natives pronounce Borneo, *Bruni*, and say it is derived from the word *Brani*, courageous; the aboriginal natives within this district having ever remained unconquered.

The aborigines of Borneo, or *Pulo Kalamantan*, still exist in the interior in considerable numbers; there are various tribes of them, speaking different dialects. Some of them acknowledge Malay chiefs, as at Landa, Songo, Mantan, &c. Several communities of them still remain under independent chiefs of their own nation; and every where, their origin, their language, their religion, their manners and customs, are totally distinct and apparent from those of the Islams, or Malays, who have settled on the island. About Pontiana and Sambas they are called *Dayers*; at Benjarmasing, *Biajus*; at Borneo proper, *Moruts*; farther northward, *Orang Idan*. Their original history is as much enveloped in obscurity as that of the Monocaboes of Malaya, the Rejangs and Battas of Sumatra, or the Togals of the Philippines. On

a nearer acquaintance with their language, customs, traditions, &c. perhaps an affinity in origin may be discovered among all the original possessors of the eastern isles. The *Moruts* and *Orang Idan* are much fairer and better featured than the Malays, of a more strong and robust frame, and have the credit of being a brave race of people. The *Dayer* is much darker and approaches nearer in resemblance to the Malay. The *Biajus* I never saw. The few particulars I have been able to collect of these people, I shall briefly state.—They live in miserable small huts, their sole dress consists of a slight wrapper round their waists, sometimes made of bark, at others from skins of animals, or perhaps of blue or white cloth. They eat rice or roots and indeed any description of food, whether beast, reptile, or vermin: they are extremely filthy; this and bad food give them a cutaneous disorder, with which they are very generally afflicted. Several tribes of them smear themselves with oil and pigments, which give them the appearance of being tattooed. Whether this is intended to defend them against the bites of insects, to operate as a cure or prevention of this epidemic, or to adorn their persons, I cannot take upon me to decide. They believe, it is said, in a supreme being, and offer sacrifices of gratitude to a beneficent deity. Polygamy is not allowed among them; no man has more than one wife: they burn their dead. They are said to shoot poisoned balls or arrows through hollow tubes, and whenever they kill a man, they preserve the skull to exhibit as a trophy to commemorate the achievement of their arms. They are said to have no mode of communicating their ideas by characters or writing like the Battas. Driven from the sea coast of Borneo into the mountains and fastnesses in the interior, they are more occupied in the chase and the pursuits of husbandry than in commerce. They however barter their inland produce of camphor, gold, diamonds, birds' nests, wax, and cattle, for salt, (which they hold in the highest degree of estimation, eating it with as much gout as we do sugar) China porcelain, brass and iron cooking utensils, brass bracelets, coarse blue and white cloth, Java tobacco, arrack (which they also like), *parangs*, hardware, beads, &c. Some tribes of them are said to pull out their front teeth and substitute others of gold, and others adorn themselves with tigers' teeth. The greatest numbers and most considerable bodies of these men are found near Kiney Balu and about Borneo Proper.

The Malays represent them as the most savage and ferocious of men, but to be more savage or ferocious than a Malay, is a thing utterly impossible. Their representations may be accounted for.—These aborigines have always evinced a strong disposition and predilection for liberty and freedom; they have either resisted the yoke of the Malay, or have retired to their mountains to enjoy this greatest of all human blessings. The Malay, unable to conquer them, lays plans for kidnapping as many as he can fall in with; every Dayak so taken is made a slave of, his children sold, and his women violated. The Malay hence is justly considered by them as the violator of every law, human and divine, and whenever any of these people meet with one, they satiate their vengeance, and destroy him as the enemy of their race and as a monster of the human kind. The Portuguese missionaries found these people very tractable converts, and very large bodies of them are very easily governed by a single Malay chief, as at Landa, Songo, and Matan. I have seen very large bodies of them at Kimanis and Maludu, but none of them possessing the ferocity of a Malay.

The Islams or Malayans who now possess the sea coasts of Borneo (as well as the sea coasts of all the eastern islands), are said to be colonies from Malacca, Johore, &c. planted in the fourteenth country; at this period, according to Mr. Pauvre, "Malacca was a country well peopled and was consequently well cultivated. This nation was once one of the greatest powers in the eastern seas, and made a very considerable figure in the theatre of Asia: they colonized Borneo, Celebes, Macassar, Moluccas, &c." The Malays on Borneo, are like the Malays every where else, the most atrocious race of beings on the earth, and from their general character and imprudent institutions, both political and religious, are fast mouldering in self-decay or mutual destruction.

From the earliest date that I have been able to trace, the island of Borneo was always divided into three distinct kingdoms, the kingdom of Borneo, *properly* so called, extended from Tanjong Dato in latitude 3. 15. north, to Kanukungan point in the straits of Macassar 1. 15. north, which included the whole north part of the island. The kingdom of Sukadana (from *suka,* happiness and *dunia,* the world, or earthly paradise,) extending from Tanjong

Dato to Tanjong Sambar, which belonged to the king of Bantam, (when or how acquired, I have not learnt): and the remainder of the island from Tanjong Sambar to Kanukungan point aforesaid, to the kingdom of Benjarmassing (from *bendar* a port of trade, and *masing* usual, or the ordinary port of trade).

When the Portuguese first visited Borneo in 1520 the whole island was in a most florishing state. The numbers of Chinese that had settled on her shores were immense; the products of their industry and an extensive commerce with China in junks, gave her land and cities a far different aspect from her dreary appearance at this day, and their princes and courts exhibited a splendor and displayed a magnificence long since vanished.

Pigofetta says there were twenty-five thousand houses in the city of Borneo proper, and that it was rich and populous. Much latter accounts describe the numbers of Chinese and Japanese junks frequenting her ports as great; but in 1809 there were not three thousand houses in the whole city, nor six thousand Chinese throughout that kingdom, and not a junk that had visited it for years. But the ports of Borneo have not dwindled away more than Acheen, Johore, Malacca, Bantam, Ternate, &c. All these places likewise cut a splendid figure in the eyes of our first navigators, and have since equally shared a proportionate obscurity.

Were the causes required which have eclipsed the prosperity of Borneo and the other great emporiums of eastern trade that once existed, it might be readily answered—a decay of commerce. They have suffered the same vicissitudes as Tyre, Sidon, or Alexandria, and like Carthage—for ages the emporium of the wealth and commerce of the world, which now exhibits on its scite a piratical race of descendants in the modern Tunisians and their neighbours the Algerines—the commercial ports of Borneo have become a nest of banditti, and the original inhabitants of both, from similar causes, the decay of commerce, have degenerated to the modern pirates of the present day.

In exact proportion as the intercourse of the Europeans with China has increased, in precise ratio has the decrease of their direct trade in junks become apparent. The Portuguese first, and subsequently the Dutch, mistress of the eastern seas, exacted by treaties and other ways the Malay produce at their own rates, and were consequently enabled to undersell the junks in China But these powers went further; by settling at ports on Borneo, or by their guardas de costas, they compelled the ports of Borneo to send their produce, calculated for the China market, to Malacca and Batavia, which at length completely cut up the direct trade by means of the Chinese junks.

The loss of their direct intercourse with China affected their prosperity in a variety of ways. First, by this circuitous direction of their trade, the gruff goods, as rattans, sago, cassia, pepper, ebony, wax, &c. became too expensive to fetch the value of this double carriage and the attendant charges, and in course of time were neglected; the loss of these extensive branches of industry must have thrown numbers out of employment. But the loss of the direct intercourse with China had more fatal effects; it prevented large bodies of annual emigrants from China settling upon her shores; it deprived them of an opportunity of visiting the Bornean ports and exercising their mechanical arts and productive industry, and of thus keeping up the prosperity of the country in the tillage of the ground, as well as in the commerce of her ports. The old Chinese settlers by degrees deserted these shores, and, to fill up the chasms in their revenues by so fatal a change, the rajas have been tempted to turn their views to predatory habits, and have permitted their lands to run to jungle, by dragging their wretched laborers from rustic employments to maritime and piratical enterprizes.

The first material alteration in the sovereignty of the territorial possession, took place in the kingdom of Borneo proper, when her raja was obliged to call in the aid of the Solos, to defend him against an insurrection of the Maruts and Chinese. In consideration of this important aid, the raja of Borneo proper ceded to the sultan of Solo, all that portion of Borneo then belonging to him, from Kimanis in latitude 5 30. north, to Tapean-durian in the straits of Macassar, which includes the whole north of Borneo. After this period, the power and fortunes of the sultan of Solo rapidly declined. The Spaniards succeeded in conquering all their islands. Solo the capital was taken and fortified; the sultan and his court made prisoners. When the English captured Manilla, they found this sultan incarcerated. They

agreed to relieve him from prison and reinstate him on the musnud of his forefathers, under the express stipulation, that the whole of the aforesaid territory of Borneo, ceded to Solo by the raja of that kingdom, should be transferred to the English East India Company, together with the south of Palawan and the intermediate islands. These terms were joyfully acceded to by the sultan of Solo and signed, sealed, and delivered by him to the late Alex. Dalrymple in the year 1763.

The kingdom of Sukadana was ceded by the raja of Bantam (in what year I know not) to the Dutch East India Company. Whether the kingdom of Benjarmasing was ever actually ceded to the Dutch or not, I have not been able to learn. But the occupancy of her capital, the military government of the country, by the erection of forts and a permanent standing force, since transferred to the English arms, give to the East India Company, actually or virtually, the entire sovereignty and rule over the whole of this large island, with the exception of the piratical port of Borneo proper and the portion of territory yet annexed thereto.

The Portuguese, at a very early period, established themselves at Benjarmasing: at Borneo proper there still remain two bastions and a curtain of a regular stone fort built by them; they had also one on the isle of Laboan, since destroyed. They fixed themselves at old Sambas, from which they were driven by the Dutch in the year 1690, and nearly about this period from all their establishments on Borneo.

When, or from what causes, the Dutch were induced to evacuate Sambas, I know not, nor have I learnt the period when they fortified themselves at Benjarmasing and Pasir, but believe it could not have taken place before the middle of the last century. They however settled at Pontiana in 1786 and built a fortified wall round the palace and factory, but were compelled to withdraw from it when the war broke out with the English in 1796. The ports at Benjarmasing, when evacuated, were sold by the Dutch to the sultan, and are since said to have been re-purchased from him by the English. The Dutch obtaining the cession of the kingdom of Sukadana from the raja of Bantam, and their subsequent measures in different parts of this territory, will shew that they had extensive views of firmly establishing themselves on this island; and waking from an age of lethargy, at last began to see the great advantages and unbounded resources these rich possessions were capable of affording them, without any cost or expense whatever. The year they withdraw from Pontiana, they had it in contemplation to take re possession of Sambas, and to unite all the ports, as well as the interior, under the raja of Pontiana in trust for them. Some letters to this effect were written by the Dutch government to the late raja.

That the English were not insensible to the value and importance of the once valuable commerce of Borneo, may be inferred, not only from the number of the Honorable Company's regular ships annually dispatched to her ports prior to the year 1760, (*vide* Hardy's shipping), but from the efforts they have repeatedly made to establish themselves on her shores. There still exist the remains of a British factory at Borneo proper. Before the year 1706, they had made two successive attempts to fortify themselves at Benjarmasing; twice they have attempted an establishment on the sickly island of Balambang, (lying north of Borneo, near Maludu); and in 1775 the Honorable Company's ship *Bridgewater* was sent to Passir with similar views.

The failure of these British attempts, as well as the exclusion of all other powers from the ports of Borneo, may be principally attributed to the sordid desire of the Dutch of monopolizing the whole produce of the eastern archipelago, and their rooted jealousy in opposing the establishment of every other power in the vicinity of Java, or that of the Spice islands.

These considerations and feelings have induced them to commit the most flagrant crimes, not only against the natives of these regions, but against every European power. Their infamous massacres at Amboyna, Banda, Bantam, &c. have been historically recorded to their eternal disgrace. By their intrigues at Benjarmassing the British attempts at a settlement twice failed, and Forrest in his voyage to New Guinea says, that the Sulos were by Dutch instigation induced to cut off the infant establishment of Balambangan in 1775. They frustrated the attempts of the *Bridgewater* at Pasir, and even the massacre of the garrison of Pulo Condore was effected by Javanese soldiers supplied by the governor of Batavia. The Eng-

lish, from their strong desire of having a port in the China seas, hastily pitched upon the most unhealthy spots for that purpose, viz. Balambangan and Pulo Condore.

The father of the present sultan of Pontiana was the descendant of an Arab, residing at Simpan, near Matan. By the advice and concurrence of the Dutch, he was induced, about forty-two years ago, to settle on the unfrequented shores of the river Pontiana,* or Quallo Londa, with promises of early co-operatiou and assistance, as well as of rendering it the mart of the trade and capital of all Sukadana. As soon as Ad lul Ramman (the name of the first sultan) had succeeded in attracting around him several Chinese, Buguese, and Malay settlers, and in building a town, the Dutch (in 1786) came with two armed brigs and fifty troops to establish their factory. To make good their promises to Abdul Ramman (the treaty I have never seen), they immediately overthrew the chief of Mompava, and gave his country in trust to this ally: they shortly after invested the ancient city of Sukadana, burnt it to the ground, transferred the inhabitants to Pontiana, or dispersed them and their chief into the interior. The Dutch likewise placed the present rajas on the musnuds of Songo, Landa, &c. and kept up a force at the former, with the express stipulation that the whole of their produce should be sent from each of their respective districts to the Dutch factory of Pontiana. They had it in contemplation in 1795, to take re-possession of Sambas, and wrote to Abdul Ramman as to the preparatory measures requisite, when the English war, as before observed, obliged them to abandon Pontiana.

This Abdul Ramman, the first sultan or chief of Pontiana, reigned thirty five years, and died, in 1807, leaving his eldest son, the present sultan Kasim, now forty-six years of age, his successor; who has a second brother called Pangeran Marko, aged thirty-eight, and Pangeran Hosman, thirty-six years, besides four sisters, one of whom married the present raja of Matan, and about seventy half brothers and sisters, the natural children of his father, with an extensive sub-progeny. The present sultan has three sons (Abibuker, heir apparent, twenty-one years old, Ali, and Abdul Ramman), and four daughters, lawfully begotten. None of the royal family make use of either opium, betel, or tobacco, in any shape whatever; and the present sultan has much the appearance of an Arab. The grandfather of the present sultan was from Arabia, a Sayed Surif; one of his relations was fixed at Palimbang, whose name is unknown to me, and the other, Shad Futlyel, at Acheen, who has been long dead.

The wet season commences from September and ends in April, when heavy rain, hard squalls and much thunder and lightning are experienced. From April till September is called the dry season, but even in this portion of the year, seldom a day elapses without a smart shower or two. The monsoons on the northerly shores of Borneo are found to correspond with those prevalent in the China seas, viz. from the N. E. from October to April, and from the S. W. the rest of the year. To the southward, about Benjarmasing, the monsoons are the same as in the Java seas, *i. e.* westerly from October to April, and easterly the rest of the year. Those parts of Borneo, near, or upon the equator, have variable winds all the year, and land and sea-breezes close in shore.

This country is by no means so warm as one would be led to imagine by its proximity every where to the line; this arises from the perpetual refreshing showers, and the land and sea-breezes, the former being wafted over innumerable rivers. In the month of November, the thermometer at Pontiana ranges from 78° to 82°.

During the wet season, the rivers swell and overflow the adjacent shores, and run down with such continued rapidity, that the water may be tasted fresh at sea at the distance of six or seven miles from the mouths: these overflowings fertilize the banks and adjacent country, and render the shores of Borneo like the plains of Egypt, luxuriantly rich. Susceptible of the highest possible culture, particularly in wet grain; in the dry season the coast, from these overflowings, presents to the eye the richest enamelled fields of full-grown grass for miles around. It is at this season the whole herds of wild cattle range down from the mountains in the interior to fatten on the plains, but during the wet season they ascend to their hills.

The whole of the north, the north-west, and the centre of Borneo, is extremely mountainous. The greatest portion of the ancient kingdom of Borneo proper is extremely elevated.

* Pontiana takes its name from a witch, who had the monstrous propensity of emasculating all males by the force of her jaws, and the seat of her power and residence were supposed to be on the scite of the present town.

That of Kiney Baulu, or St. Peters' mount, in latitude 6. north, is perhaps one of the highest mountains known. The country about Sambas, Pontiana, and Sukadana, is occasionally interspersed with a few ranges of hills, otherwise the land here might be deemed low. But to the southward and more particularly to the east, in the straits of Macassar, it is very low. The shore in these latter places is extremely moist and swampy, but the interior is said to be dry.

The common charts of Borneo will shew the innumerable rivers that water this vast island in every possible direction; but it is worthy of remark, that all the principal rivers on this island have their main source in a large lake in the vicinity of that stupendous mountain before mentioned, Kiney Baulu. The river Benjarmasing takes it rise from thence, and after traversing in all its windings a distance of 1500 miles, intersecting the island into two parts, falls into the Java sea. Its rise and fall is said to be twelve feet, and it has only nine feet at low water on the bar. It is said to have numberless villages scattered on its banks, but I have obtained no particular accounts of them, or their produce.

The great river of Borneo proper, is certainly the finest on the island. It is a deep navigable and majestic stream; it has three fathoms upon the bar at low water; the rise and fall is, I believe, fifteen feet; there are docks here for Chinese junks of five or six hundred tons, and a first-rate ship of war might get up far above the town. The country too is populous, productive, and healthy. The southern branch of this river has been well surveyed, but the branch leading to the Marut country is little known: it has its source in Kiney Baulu.

In the ancient kingdom of Sukadana, the five principal rivers, are the Sukadana, the Lava, the Pogore, the Pontiana, and the Sambas. The former rivers communicate inland, and their main source is in Kiney Baulu. The whole of these rivers are deep and navigable for seventy or eighty miles, but have all of them mud flats at their mouths, which would not admit of the entry of vessels exceeding fourteen feet at high water springs.

The third most considerable river on Borneo is the Kinabatangan, lying in the north of the island, and emptying itself into the Sulo seas. It is said to be deep and navigable much farther than the Benjarmasing river; it has several mouths, but it has never been surveyed. The rivers Kuran, Passir, and a variety of others that fall into the straits of Macassar, are said to be noble streams, navigable for vessels of large burthen, but I have no accurate information of them. The harbor of Sandakan is one of the finest in the world: a correct chart of the same is published. The harbor of Tambisan, near cape Unsing, is equal to Pulo Pinang, and calculated for careening and building ships; a tolerable chart of these is also published. The harbors of Pulo Laut, Punangau, Maludu, and several others in the straits of Macassar, afford good anchorage, and complete shelter for shipping.

Situated as Borneo is, immediately under the equator, every thing that can be produced in vegetation by the combined influence of heat and moisture, is here displayed in the highest luxuriance and super-excellence. All the oriental palms, as the cocoanut, the areca, the sago, &c. abound here. The larger grasses, as the bamboo, the canna, the nardus, assume a stately growth and thrive in peculiar luxuriance. Pepper is found wild every where, and largely cultivated about Benjarmasing and the districts of Borneo proper. The laurus cinnamomum and cassia odoriferata, are produced in abundance about Kimanis. In no part of the world does the camphor tree flourish in equal perfection as in the districts of Maludu and Payton in the north of Borneo. The ebony, the dammas, the tree that yields the finest dragon's blood in the world, all abound here. The cotton and coffee trees are found in all parts of Borneo, though not much attended to. The chocolate nut of Sulo is preferred at Manilla to that from South America. The tree that yields the clove bark, and the nutmeg, and clove, thrive luxuriantly, though never tried to any extent.

The woods about Pontiana for carpentry and joinery, are kayu bulean, chena, mintangore, laban, ebony, iron wood, dammar, and dammar laut, &c. &c. The pine abounds in the bay of Maludu, teak at Sulo. The fruit-bearing trees which enrich and adorn the Indian continent, offer, on the Bornean shore, all their kindred varieties nurtured by the bountiful hand of luxuriant nature. The durian, mangustin, rambutan, proya, chabi, kachang, timon, jambu, kniban, besides the nanka or jack, tamarind, pomplemose, orange, lemon, and citron, all the kindred varieties of the plantain, banana, melon, annanas, pomegranate, &c. are found on Borneo.

The garden stuffs met with are, onions, garlic, yams, pumkins, brinjals, greens, beans, cucumbers; and turnips, cabbages and potatoes would succeed, were there Europeans to attend to them.

The elephant was said to be seen about cape Unsing, where several teeth are still found, but it is conceived this animal is extinct on the island. There are no dromedaries, nor camels; nor are horses, asses, or mules met with on Borneo, (the former are seen at Sulo). None of the larger breed of the feline species are found here, as the lion, tiger, leopard; nor the bear, the wolf, the fox, nor even a jackall or dog, that I ever saw. The orang utan, or the man of the woods, is the most singular animal found in these regions. The rivers swarm with alligators, and the woods with every variety of the monkey tribe. The names of other animals on Borneo are the bodok or rhinoceros, pelando or rabbit, rusa or stag, kijang or doe, minjagon, babi utan or wild hog, tingileng, bintangan, &c. There are buffaloes, goats, bullocks, hogs, besides the rat and mouse species; a dog I never saw on Borneo.

There are few snakes on the sea coast, owing to the moisture; plenty however are found in the interior. The musquito, the fly, the frog, and the noisy beetle with other insects and vermin found in Malay countries, abound here.

The coasts and rivers abound with excellent and wholesome fish in the greatest variety, and of the most delicious flavors; but such is the miserable state of society, that few Malays have either the inclination or the inducement to venture beyond the mouths of their rivers in quest of them; and even there, they are more indebted to the industry of the Chinese with their fishing stakes, than to their own labor, for the supply of their markets. The names of their fish are the kakab, klabaw, jilawat, lai-is, pattain, udang or prawn, shrimp, talang, sinanging, bawan, rowan, taylaon, duri, bleda, tingairy, alu-alu, pako, jumpul, pari or skait, boli ayam, tambah or shad, belut or eel, iyu or shark, lida or sole, batu batu, kabab batu, klaoi, krang or cockle, tiram or oyster, tipy and lapis pearl oysters, cupang or muscle, all the varieties of the turtle, with several other sorts.

The ornithology of Borneo is somewhat limited. There are the bayan, nuri, dara, pepit or sparrow, tukukur or turtle dove, berkey, kandang, kiridi, gogaw or crow, seyrindit, layang or swallow, kalilawan. The Chinese rear ducks; the tame fowl abounds, but the turkey, goose and peafowl are seldom met with.

The principal gold mines on Borneo are in the vicinity of Sambas. There is a mountain called *Guning Pandan*, about eighty miles inland; from this branch out three rivers, one leads to Mompava, one to Batu Bulat near Tanjong Mora, and one to Landa; the whole intermediate area between the above rivers, is of a firm, yellow, argillaceous, schistus, or a feruginous quartz, interspersed with horn and vitreous ores, of a remarkable dark reddish colour, abounding with the richest veins of gold, and equal if not superior to any mine extant. There are only fifty parets or mines now wrought in the whole kingdom of Sukadana, thirty of which are in the Sambas district, each mine having at least three hundred men, Chinese, employed in them. Their pay, one with another, is four dollars per mensem.

The mines are rented from the raja at the rate of fifty bunkals of gold per mine per annum, besides a capitation tax of three dollars per head on every Chinaman. There are thirty thousand Chinese in the Sambas districts, and they feel themselves strong enough to oppose or evade this tax; it hence becomes a perpetual contest between greedy extortion on the one side and avaricious chicane on the other; there are besides about twelve thousand Malays and Dayers.

The Laurat gold mines are situated to the eastward of the town of Sambas, and are particularly rich and productive. The mines of Siminis are one day's journey from Sambas, up a small creek leading from Sambas river, below the town, and the mines are abundant.—Salako is up a river fifteen miles south of the Sambas river; it lies nearly forty miles up, but communicates with Sambas by another river: here the metal is found more abundant than any where else, and twenty thousand Chinese are found in this district.—Mantrado is three day's journey up the Mompava river; it is under an independent Malay prince. Some accounts make the population of this district great, near fifty thousand Dayers, Malays, and Chinese, but perhaps half the number may be nearer the truth; these are chiefly employed on the gold mines and in producing food for the miners: these mines however do not pro-

duce that quantity which they might under Chinese management.—Mandore is about a day's journey from Pontiana, and belongs to the sultan; it is reckoned a very rich mine, though but recently wrought. There are as yet only twelve parets of about two hundred men each, but it is capable of extension. Likewise are found in this district some very rich specimens of copper ore; it has not as yet been wrought, gold being deemed a much more productive article. The sultan wishes however he had some boring utensils and an experienced miner, to enable him to decide whether it would be worth working under the peculiar circumstances above mentioned. Numbers of Chinese are settled in this district and the population is annually increasing.

About three day's journey up the Pongole river lies the district of Songo, with a population of twenty five thousand souls, Dayers, and a few Chinese, under a Malay and an independent prince. The population is chiefly employed on the rich mines of gold in the neighbourhood, which is particularly pure and abundant; but the mines are not wrought with the same industry as those under Chinese management. The Dutch thought it of so much consequence as to keep a force at Songo, and to place the present raja on that musnud. About two days' journey farther up, lies another gold district called Santam, the inhabitants of which are principally Dayers. Beyond Santam and higher up on the same river, lies the town of Sukadow abounding in gold, the inhabitants of which are also Dayers.

Matan belongs to the raja of that name; he had the title of raja of Sukadana, until driven out of the latter place by the Dutch, seventeen years ago. There are ten thousand Dayers in this district and a few Chinese and Malays. The mines of gold are abundant, and capable of becoming highly productive, as well as the mines of iron and unwrought tin; but the sultan is much addicted to the use of opium, and hence neglects a valuable country, capable, under better management, of becoming the most valuable district on all Borneo.

About three days' journey from Pontiana lies the celebrated mountain of Landa, which after Golconda is the most valuable diamond mine in the world. There are at least thirty thousand people, principally Dayers, employed on the mines and agriculture; it belongs to a Malay prince, raised to that musnud twenty five years ago by the Dutch, through the agency of the present sultan of Pontiana; here also much gold is produced, and much more might be had under proper management.

There is a very valuable gold mine in the north of Borneo, at a place called Tampasuk, situated in the district ceded to the English by the sultan of Sulo; but having become the principal pirate port on the coast, the working of the mines has been discontinued.

The whole produce of the gold mines of Sukadana is said to be annually about twenty piculs, or a million of dollars, at twenty five dollars a bunkal; but no calculation of this sort can possibly be correct. Living, as the Chinese do, under the rapacity of despotic and ferocious freebooters, who are actuated by no one principle of honor, justice, or good faith, it is their interest to conceal the riches they amass, not only to preserve themselves from the clutches of these tyrants, but as the most compact substance to transport to their native shores, to which they repair with the fruits of their industry by the annual junks that arrive at Pontiana, leaving the mines to new settlers; from two to three hundred leave Pontiana every year.

The standard of Slakow gold at Pontiana is affixed at twenty three Spanish dollars the bunkal of two dollars weight. The Songo and Laurat is twenty five dollars the said bunkal.

Not having had an opportunity to inspect any of the gold mines personally, I know not if the ores readily melt of themselves, or whether they require the aid of any fluxes before they yield the metal; but I believe the principal attention of the miners is directed to the rich veins of pure native gold, and that no operation is performed beyond that of pulverising, and simple washing; all the gold about Pontiana being in dust, though some I have met with in Borneo proper was run into bars. About Landa, where the diamonds are found, the whole of the stratum is observed to be a clay of a red burnt appearance, nearly to the same degree as that of burnt bricks, which gives to the rivers hereabouts a peculiar tinge. Whether this has been formed by the action of subterraneous fires, or is the effect of volcanoes or earthquakes, I cannot decide; the latter are said to be frequently felt at Pontiana and at Sambas, and the former are said to exist in the central mountains of Borneo.

From the slovenly manner in which the diamonds are sought for by the Dayers, they seldom collect them of a size exceeding three or four carats' weight each.—When rough, the Landa diamond has a white or yellow hue, but none are found of that inky and flinty tinge so valuable in some of the Golconda diamonds. But that Landa does produce them of a very considerable size, the extensive and valuable specimens in Java, as well as the quantities annually sent to Batavia, will evince. The king of Matan is at this instant in possession of a diamond weighing 367 carats; the value of which, according to the old mode of calculation, would be (367+367+2)=365,378£. The sultan of Pontiana says, however, that a much larger price was offered for it by the Dutch government of Java. He refused, it is said, twenty five laks of dollars, two sloops of rice, fifty pieces of cannon, and a hundred muskets. Several from twenty to thirty carats have been dug up. At Mompava there are said to be very rich copper mines; but from want of population, a vigorous government, and scientific mineralogists, little is to be hoped from them at the present day.—At Pulo Bongorong near Borneo proper, there is plenty of load-stone found.

About one degree north of Sambas there is a country called Sarawan, belonging to the raja of Borneo proper; there is a vast district abounding in tin, in veins as rich and as plentiful as those wrought on Banca: but they have been neglected for a series of years; they were partially wrought before those of the latter were discovered, in the beginning of the last century. The tyranny of that government, the want of hands, and the contiguity of rich and valuable gold mines, have together caused their utter neglect; and there is little probability of more favorable results, except under a change of government and a happier order of things.

In the Matan districts there is an extensive and most valuable iron mine, producing pure metal without any admixture of ore: it is fully equal in quality to the best Swedish iron; they run it into shot, and much of it is exported; but the gold mines in its vicinity, and the want of a proper government, are obstacles to its further productiveness and utility.—At Maday, on the north-east coast of Borneo, in the province of Mangidara, there a very rich mine of gold.—Pasir and Coti, in the straits of Macassar, produce considerable quantities of gold, and gold and diamonds are brought down by the river to Benjarmasing. I have however no accurate information on the subject and can simply note the general fact.

There are several fine specimens of chrystal found at Kimanis and Sulo: they call them water diamonds. To give full effect to the mines in the kingdom of Sukadana, says the sultan of Pontiana, and to raise the excess of food required for the additional hands, would together give employment to at least a million of Chinese. Under the British flag, he thinks thousands of new settlers will find their way in the annual junks.

All that extensive range, from cape Unsing, passing by the Tawi Tawi islands and Sulo as far as Baselan, is one vast continued bed of pearl oysters, principally of the Behoren or mother of pearl shell species; these are called by the natives *tipi*. There is likewise an extensive bed of the Ceylon oyster, called by the Malays *kapis*; the principal banks of the latter are found in Maludu bay. The Sulo pearls have, from time immemorial, been the most celebrated, and praised as the most valuable of any in the known world. Pigofetta, the companion of Magalhaens, mentions having seen in 1520 two Sulo pearls in the possession of the raja of Borneo as large as pullet eggs. Very large ones, from one to two hundred *chaw* weight, are at all times to be purchased at Sulo; and there are altogether sold here to the China junks, the Spaniards, &c. more than two laks of dollars worth annually. The quantity of mother of pearl shell, *communibus annis*, sold there, is two thousand piculs, at six dollars a picul. The fishery is partly carried on by the Malays, and partly by the Chinese; the large pearls they endeavour to conceal as much as possible, from a law that all pearls above a certain size of right belong to the sultan. "The small narrow guts" says Dalrymple in his account of the Sulo seas "about Tawi Tawi, are the most rich and valuable fishery in the world." I have had an opportunity of inspecting the banks about Manar and Tutacoryn, as well as all the banks in the Sulo seas; but the former have not banks near as extensive, equalling in the quantity of oysters, in productiveness, size, or richness, the Sulo pearl, nor are they to be compared in any way to the Sulo beds. Still the Ceylon fishery has netted the British government from one to two laks of pagodas for permitting it to be fished fourteen days annually. As this portion of Borneo belongs to the English, a much greater revenue might be drawn from these vast sources of wealth under proper management.

As there are no people of sufficient opulence to contract for so vast a fishery, the company might undertake it themselves; three or four gun-boats would be necessary to protect the fishermen, and a small fort should be erected at Tambisan, or Tawi Tawi. But it is necessary to observe, the Sulo people do not practice diving at all, as is the case at Beharen and Ceylon, but only comprehend the slow method of dredging for the *tipy*, with a thing like the fluke of a wooden anchor. It would be a desirable thing, in the event of prosecuting this valuable fishery as a national concern, to obtain forty or fifty Arab divers from Beharen, and perhaps an equal number of Chulias from Nagore and Negapatam, from the number employed annually on the Ceylon fishery; these men would teach the Malay the superiority of diving, which can, in fourteen days' fishing, bring in to government a revenue of two laks of pagodas, pay the expences of the fishery, and enrich all parties concerned; whilst the Malayan operose plan of dredging, perhaps affords but a precarious subsistence. But had they divers, from the extent of the banks instead of fourteen days in the year, they might, one after another, be fished the whole year round and never be exhausted. The Chinese fishermen, though laborious, possess no enterprize, and can never be prevailed on to dive, from apprehension of the sharks. The Caffris from New Guinea and the Arroes would be superior to them.

The sultan of Sulo, in 1810, proposed to me to bring over one hundred Chulia divers from Negapatam, on our joint expense and profit, and the divers agreed to go over on receiving each twenty five rupees advance, their victuals being found, and one-fourth of the produce of oysters allowed them, as at Ceylon. Circumstances however occurred to prevent an undertaking which I think must have turned out highly lucrative. They dredge the banks all the year round. The water on the Tahow, Malúdu, and Tawi Tawi banks, is from seven to ten fathoms deep, in other places they fish in fifteen fathoms.

The Malays of Borneo understand the art of cutting, polishing, and setting their diamonds: gold and silver filagree works they excel in: gun-powder is manufactured at Pontiana: bass cannon is cast at Borneo proper: iron shot is run from their mine. They can manufacture and repair krises, and clean their arms. Their carpentry extends to the building and repairing of prows, and the erecting of a hut: their industry is farther exerted in collecting birds' nests and wax; in cutting rattans and felling timber; in the pearl and tripan fisheries; or as mariners in commercial or piratical pursuits. The tillage of the ground and the edible fisheries are often left to the more indefatigable industry of the Chinese: for the exercise of every other useful occupation also, the mechanical and scientific arts, and the labor of the mines, these indolent savages are indebted solely to the superior industry and civilization of the China-men.

The amusement of the Malays in other parts, are unpractised on the shores of Borneo; the only ones I ever saw, were flying the kite, swimming, and the songs of their women: this latter is confined to the rajas.

Wherever a water communication on Borneo presents, the indolence of the Malay will not permit him to think of the construction of a road. In the interior, however, there are pathways in all directions; about Mompava, where the river is narrow and shallow, they have constructed several roads. Being a people much occupied in maritime pursuits, they prefer, like the amphibious Dutch, travelling by rivers, or the innumerable cuts, canals, and creeks, which every where intersect the country: besides, their prows afford more protection from surprize, and they conceive their town as safer, by being surrounded by a jungle and situated in a swamp; nor have they any conception beyond water carriage.

Their laws neither depend upon the koran nor any written code, human or divine, beyond the whim and caprice of the chief (assassin) and his gang of desperadoes. The sultan of Pontiana has however established the following regulations:

Punishments for murder—life for life, except when the parties can commute the same by fine.

Acts of adultery—the male loses half the offending member, and the adultress is suspended by the heels and hot lead poured into the source of life.

A proclamation is publicly affixed announcing the law, that if any person be found adulterating gold dust or uttering it so depreciated with a view to defraud, the perpetrator shall lose his right arm, and the adulterated gold shall be confiscated.

For theft—five dollars per head is given by the sultan to any one bringing in the head of a thief: if brought in alive, he is suspended by the heels and flogged as far as nature can bear short of death, and the punishment repeated at libitum.

Prisoners taken from an enemy, whether found in arms or not, are made slaves of, or suffer death at the option of the captor.

The Malay government is said to exhibit the feudal system in its most perfect form. The chief, or rajah, issues his orders to the *pangerans*, or princes of the blood; to the *datus*, or nobles of royal descent; or to the *orang kayas*, or wealthy vassals. All these obey and follow him to war, free of expense, when the king is sufficiently powerful to enforce it; but whenever the vassal feels himself strong enough to throw off the yoke, and to assert his independence, he sets up for himself. These vassals exact the same obedience from their slaves or villains, who pay the like deference only so long as they are compelled to observe and obey them. The property acquired by a slave, he is often allowed to enjoy unmolested during his life time, but at his death, his master administers to the estate, as heir, executor, and sole legatee.

In fact, it is a government, that inspires on all sides one universal distrust; that rules by precedents of oppression, without a view to protection. The chiefs dread the power of their vassals, who in return apprehend every thing from the rapacity of the governing power; whilst the bulk of the people, having no property to lose, are still compelled to appear abroad armed, to defend their very persons from the outrage and violence of the next assassin they meet.

Where governments not only tolerate murder, rapine, thefts, piracies, conflagrations, with every outrage violating the happiness and safety of society, (but they are the first to set the example and to consecrate the atrocity;) where the people are taught no one principle of morality or religion; where the arts and sciences are wholly unknown or despised; where the amusements and sociabilities of human life are totally disregarded; where the bounties and comforts of nature are rather dispensed with than enjoyed; and where the absolute necessaries to existence, and the decorations of life, are more scanty and wretched than yet discovered amongst the rudest set of barbarians extant; if from the experience of the past, expectations of the future are to be formed, we may safely infer, that every vestige of Malay government and dominion, will be engulfed in the vortex of self and mutual destruction. Such a system of society, has in itself the seeds of dissolution, and is rapidly verging to an inherent decay and general oblivion, which it will doubtless meet, unless some beneficent power arrest it baneful impetus, and direct it feverish energies through channels calculated to promote the happiness and to consolidate the welfare of the inhabitants of these scattered regions.

Should so fortunate an occurrence ever fall to the lot of Borneo; should a strong and a wise government ever be established on her shores, a government that will religiously respect property, and secure to industry the fruits of her labor; that will, by a wise system of laws, protect the peaceable, and punish the violator of the laws of a well organised society; that will direct their industry to useful purposes and check their propensities to violence and plunder; such a government, in a short series of years, would behold, as if by magic, a paradise burst from her wilds, see cultivation smile upon her jungles, and hail a vast and increasing population, blessing the hand that awoke them to life, to happiness, and to prosperity.—That so felicitous a change is not the mere reverie of a glowing imagination, or the sheer effusion of benevolence alone, is easily demonstrable.

Whoever has seen the Egyptian fertility of the soil from the moistness of the climate, the numberless rivers meandering around and intersecting the country in all directions, with the mild temperature of the climate from similar causes; whoever considers the vast extent and inexhaustible wealth of her innumerable mines of pure native gold, her block tin, her copper, her iron, her diamonds, &c. her various valuable fisheries of pearl and tripan; whoever views her ports, her harbors, and her productive shores, at the threshold of the over-teeming population of China; and at the same moment recollects that the country abounds in various valuable products in the highest possible estimation, and of increasing demand in the empire of China; must easily conceive what a tempting field and rich harvest this land of promise

holds out to their industry and cupidity, under such a system of laws and government as we have deemed a *sine quâ non*.

If under the present codes of tyranny, oppression, and general ferocity, where nothing is permanent but violence and desolation; if under such a system of barbarism, a hundred thousand Chinese (which is the fact) have found inducements sufficiently strong to settle on her shores, what might we not hope and expect from the over-burthened population of that vast empire under a happier order of things? The astonishing number of Chinese settled within a few years at Pulo Pinang, on a contracted soil, possessing no peculiar advantages but from a free trade and equitable laws impartially administered, is both a fact and an illustration; and what might not Borneo hope for from a happier soil, greater inducements, and other physical advantages. Java, under the despotism of the Dutch, with the character of a sickly climate, and the remembrance of the cruel massacre of sixty thousand innocent Chinese, could still boast a hundred thousand of these people, at the period it fell to the British arms; and withal, let it be remembered, that these shores were once blessed with the industry of these people to a far greater extent, under a happier period of her history.

Whatever indeed might prove the work of ages in various other parts of the globe, would, under the present circumstances of the Chinese empire, be instantaneous on these shores: and their habits of industry and civilization, when once rooted to the soil, would soon spread their genial influence to the extensive population of the interior, unite them in the bonds of social life, cement them in the general prosperity, and render these extensive shores a valuable appendage, and an increasing resource, to the wealth and power that brought about so happy a revolution in their affairs.'

For a considerable series of years past, the piratical ports of Borneo, &c. have been in the habit of committing depredations upon the commerce of British India, 'in the capture of her ships, the insulting of her flag, the offering of outrageous violence to the persons and lives of her mariners, merchants, &c. and this too with the most perfect impunity, no retribution having been exacted, no reprisals made, no remonstrance presented, and in fact no notice taken of their atrocious depredations. Hence these desperadoes, from inference and experience of the past, have been led to conclude, that whatever was practicable would be tolerated; that wherever they had the means or opportunity of overpowering, it was their duty, as it was to their advantage, to seize it to their own use, without any other apprehensions of the consequences than what might arise in the attempt.

Under this discouraging aspect of affairs, there was but little more left to the commercial community of India, than either to abandon the valuable commerce of Borneo wholly, or, if allured to it by a prospect of gain, to proceed in armed vessels at an increased expense and high insurance so as to cover the extraordinary risques. These enhanced prices either operated as a prohibition to the trade, or circumscribed it so much, that an occasional capture excited no surprise, and was frigidly dismissed as a matter of course.

But from the prodigious accession of territorial possession, including the whole of the vast Dutch empire in the east, the communications between these and British India, have necessarily increased a thousand fold; consequently the recent alarming depredations upon our commerce, the serious obstacles to a safe communication, almost tantamount to a blockade of our eastern ports by these pirates, imperiously call upon the British government to adopt the most energetic means and decisive measures to crush their power, and annihilate their resources, either by extirpating them wholly, or placing them and their possessions under such future control and checks, as shall prevent the possibility of a revival of a power capable of recurring to enormities that have so long outraged and disgraced the British flag in the eastern seas.

The idea of extirpating whole hordes of piratical states, were it possible, must, from its cruelty, be incompatible with the liberal principles and humane policy of a British government. The simple burning down of a Malay town can prove no serious impediment to future piratical enterprizes; constructed, as they are, of bamboos, mats, and atap leaves, a town is almost rebuilt in the same period of time as it takes to destroy it. The Dutch, who had centuries of dear-bought experience, knew there was no other mode of prevention and radical cure, than building small redoubts at the principal towns, and keeping up an ade-

quate force to check piratical enterprizes and to turn their restless minds to exertions of industry; satisfied if, with the attainment of these objects, they covered the expences of the establishment. This is the true history of the innumerable little forts on Celebes, Borneo, Timor, and all the eastern isles.

The principal piratical ports that still exist, besides those of Lingin, Rhio, and Billiton, are—1st. Pangeran Annam at Sambas—2nd. port Borneo proper, and four hundred prows at Tampasuk, both under the raja of Borneo proper—3rd. the Pasir pirates—4th. the Sulo pirates—5th. the Illano or pirates on the isle of Magindano.

I shall, from memory, cite such few of their depredations as I recollect.

In 1774, says Forrest, the British were expelled from their infant settlement of Balambangan, by an insurrection of the Sulos, who, finding the garrison weak and sickly, unprepared and off their guard, murdered and plundered them, and set fire to their settlement: this was in return for having released their sultan from prison, and re-established him on the musnud of his ancestors.—In 1800, Capt. Pavin and a boat's crew were cruelly murdered in the palace of the sultan of Sulo, whilst the commander was drinking a cup of chocolate: they fired upon the ship Ruby, but did not succeed in capturing her.—In 1810, they plundered the wreck of the ship Harrier, of a valuable cargo: several of her crew are still in slavery at Bagayan Sulo.—In 1788 the ship May of Calcutta, 450 tons burthen, Capt. Dixon, was cut off at Borneo proper: they were invited up to the town with the ship, and whilst at dinner, the sultan and his people fell upon them and murdered Capt. Dixon, three officers, and ten Europeans; the lascars were retained in slavery, the valuable cargo plundered, and the ship burnt.—In 1803, the ship Susana of Calcutta, Capt. Drysdale, was cut off near Pontiana by the Sambas and Borneo pirates; the Europeans were all massacred and the vessel taken.—In 1769, Capt. Sadler, with his boat's crew, was murdered by the Sambas pirates off Mompava, having a prodigious quantity of gold dust; they did not succeed in cutting off the ship.—In 1806, Mr. Hopkins and crew, of the Commerce, were murdered by the pirates of Borneo proper: the ship was plundered by them and the Sambas pirates —In 1810, Capt. Ross was cut off.—In 1811, Capt. Graves was cut off by the Pasir pirates, with a rich cargo.—In 1812, the enormities of Pangeran Annam have out-heroded Herod; these are too recent to require recapitulation. Independent of his depredations on the Coromandel, a Portuguese ship, &c. nine Europeans of the Hecate have been seized and made slaves: two have been since murdered, two have escaped, and five are ham-strung and otherwise maimed. Mrs. Ross and her son are still in slavery there.

The Tampasuk pirates, belonging to the raja of Borneo proper, aiding and abetting Pangeran Annam against the English, are Datu Akop, Datu Aragut, and Datu Jumbarang, with ten large men-of-war prows: there is also there the raja Endut, a Siak chief.

Matan is under an independent raja, who was formerly styled sultan of Sukadana, but about seventeen years ago the Dutch burnt down his city: at length by some pecuniary aid received from the late sultan of Pontiana, he was enabled to re-establish his affairs as raja of Matan, and in consideration of this aid, entered into a treaty of alliance, which stipulated, that on his daughter's marriage with the grandson of the late, and son of the present, sultan of Pontiana, he would cede his kingdom and large diamond as a marriage portion: the parties yet remain single. Under the head mineralogy we have pointed out how valuable a country this might become under better management: iron, gold, tin, and diamonds, abound here. Also much wax, pepper, rattans, garu, and about two pikuls of the finest birds' nest, which sells at twenty eight dollars the catty at Pontiana. Most of the trade finds its way to Pontiana, Benjar, or Java, in prows. The population is about ten thousand Dayers, &c.

Sukadana, once the most celebrated city on Borneo, as the name implies, a terrestrial paradise, the capital of a kingdom and a great mart of trade, since burnt down and destroyed by the Dutch, exhibits nothing but ruins: there still remain numberless delicious fruit trees, and a country still susceptible of general cultivation, being yet clear of jungle and morass. It is utterly abandoned: that it has not been rebuilt, is owing to the raja of Pontiana, at whose suggestion it was destroyed, and whose interest it was to keep it down, having himself risen upon its ashes.

There are no towns of any importance between Matan and Pontiana. The rise of this

dynasty of sultans has been noted in another place; it is however almost the only power that has been expressly raised, supported, and that still exists, by commerce. It is situated in latitude 4. north of the equator. The river has two mouths to it; the northern mouth is the deepest, the most direct, and of the greatest breadth; there are in this branch only two reaches up to the town. The city is no more than fifteen miles from the mouth of the rivers; its site is on the junction of the Matan and Landa rivers. About two thirds of the way up, it is fortified; first with a battery on piles in the centre of the stream, mounting five guns; on the left bank, is another with wooden pales, mounting likewise five guns; on the opposite bank is a third, similar to the foregoing, with a like number of cannon; and lastly on the same bank is their grand battery, constructed of stone, mounting five eighteen pounders, at the *batu*, or rock: here the mausoleum of the royal family is erected, containing the tomb of the late sultan. The whole of this side of the river exhibits the marks of infant cultivation. The jungle has been, in part, cleared away, and here and there a solitary hut greets the eye. The sultan's palace has a battery of eleven guns of all sizes: none of these are calculated to make any serious resistance; so sensible is the sultan of this that he has commenced staking round with piles a low swampy island, just detached from the palace. On this stands the grand mosque; he proposes throwing mud and stones within the ranges of piles, and planting upon them the heaviest calibred cannon: it is a commanding site and capable of being rendered formidable. There are no roads about Pontiana: the town is situated in the midst of a swamp so low that the tide at high water overflows the lower parts of the houses, and this with the addition of a *country over-run with impenetrable jungle*, renders it extremely unhealthy and a *most disagreeable* residence.

The campo China contains about two thousand souls, and lies on the left bank of the Matan river, abreast of the palace; the campo Buguese, on the right bank of the Landa; and the campo Malayu adjoins the palace. The whole population is about seven thousand souls; no Dayers are found hereabouts. The whole of the districts under Pontiana produce about three hundred coyans of rice, the average selling price of which is from fifty-five to seventy Spanish dollars the coyan. The king's revenue is forty thousand dollars per annum. The Chinese plead poverty, but some of the Buguese are pointed out as wealthy. The quantity of gold that finds its way to Pontiana is annually from three to four piculs. The imports there consist of opium, iron, steel, salt, rice, hardware, cutlery, blue and white gurras, salampories, Java cloths, gun-powder, besides China produce of all possible descriptions. They make their returns in gold, diamonds, birds' nest, wax, rattans, garu, ebony, agar-agar; besides pepper, sago, camphor, cassia, tripan, &c. brought here by the prows: five Chinese junks annually visit Pontiana, bringing down produce amounting to about fifty thousand dollars. The depredations of the Pangeran Annam prevent an extension of this most useful of all trades to this country. One or two Siamese junks arrive annually. The Tringanu, Timbilan, Karimata, and Borneo proper prows trade here; and before Java fell to the British arms, the Buguese from the eastward traded here to a considerable amount.

The stone walls built by the Dutch, still encompass the palace: the piles on which their factory stood are yet discernable, but the buildings have been pulled down. Should the English hoist their flag here, a new factory must be erected: the most eligible situation for which would be where the mosque now stands, or the mosque itself might be converted into one and another rebuilt elsewhere; but to this the sultan has insuperable objections. In an English fort, to think to have a mosque open to the ingress of a large body of Malays at all times, is wholly incompatible with a certain reserve and security required from it. Besides, as the island is small and soldiers at times inconsiderate, they might profane or defile its holy precincts and thus lay the foundation of perpetual disputes or even a serious rupture. The fort and factory, if built at all at Pontiana, must hence be fixed in some detached place. The sultan is building a new palace and covering it with tiles; a novelty in this quarter. There is but a scanty supply of fowls, and buffaloes and the necessaries of life are scarce and dear. It is altogether the most uncouth and dreary spot under the sun, though the sultan prefers it to Sambas and Mompava.

Their naval force consists of two small ships, two brigs, fifty prows large and small, and about one thousand men. There is water on the bar to admit vessels drawing nine feet water. The roadstead with seven fathoms water on it lies seven miles from the river's mouth. Care must be taken not to mistake the Pongole river seen from the offing, and which lies ten miles farther southward. The only stock procurable here were hogs at ten dollars the picul, and water shipped off in China tank boats at four and a half dollars the ton.

The next port is Mompava, about sixteen miles to the northward of Pontiana and the second port belonging to the sultan. The river is shallow, narrow, extremely serpentine, and constantly running down with great rapidity. The country around is a paradise in comparison with Pontiana: it is upon an elevated site, and wherever the eye reaches, it is clear of jungle and of a fine rich mould, susceptible of the highest culture. There is a walk up to the town, about eight miles from the mouth of the river; here the fishing stakes nearly extend across the river, besides two miserable forts, mounting each five or six pounders, to defend the river. The population is seven thousand men, Malays, Buguese, and Dayers, and about two thousand Chinese. Formerly the territory of Mompava extended as far as 1°. north latitude; this territory belonged to a chief or raja, reduced by the Dutch twenty-five years ago, shortly after they settled at Pontiana; the territory thus conquered was delegated in trust to the raja of Pontiana. The Sambas raja has forcibly taken possession of a part of it. Sultan Kassim of Pontiana governed this district, during his father's life time. On his accession to the musnud five years ago, he placed a half brother there, a stupid fellow about twenty-five years of age: *this man, about eight months ago was trying to establish his independence, which he found he could not maintain.* It has the same trade as Pontiana, but the regulations of the sultan do not admit of any vessel's touching here for that purpose. The palace is extensive, paled round with a sort of a fortification; the campo China, in October last, was in part burnt down by the people of Sambas, to the number of four hundred houses. There is a variety of roads hereabouts; one leading to Sambas, one to Landa, one to Mintrada, &c. Groves of cocoanut trees mark the site of ancient villages since demolished, and indicate that it once enjoyed a superiority and preeminence of which it has been despoiled. In point of susceptibility of cultivation, it is a full half century beforehand with Pontiana; it is capable of great improvement, and much grain might be raised with very little trouble.

There is a considerable mud flat at the mouth of the Sambas river, extending four or five miles out, but no regular bar: vessels drawing thirteen feet may get in at high water springs: nine feet is the least water and there is thirteen at the flood: in the offing there is a rise and fall of seven feet. At the entrance of the river, neither shore must be too closely hugged, having ledges of rocks near them: twelve miles above the bar, the river branches into two parts; the broad or northern branch is called the Borneo river, having its source in Kiney Baulu; the other leading to the town of Sambas, is named the Landa river, having its source in the diamond mines: where these two unite below, there was formerly a fort. The Landa river is extremely serpentine, deep to the very bushes on both sides, and quite clear of danger up to the town, except near Siminis creek, about ten miles below the fort; here a reef of rocks run across the stream, and as the fair way over them is somewhat intricate, the channel ought to be buoyed before attempted to be passed. The Barracouta drawing thirteen feet just scraped them at high water.

About five or six leagues up the Landa branch, and about thirteen from the sea, stands the town and palace of Sambas, on the confluence of the Landa and Salako rivers. The fort, on the right bank of the Landa, is about a league below the town, built of two rows of large piles, the interstices being filled up with mud and stones, apparently mounting five guns, eighteens and twelves in the lower tier, and an equal number of smaller calibre on the second or more elevated range. A boom or dam of fishing stakes was constructed across the river one eighth of a mile below the fort; a large armed prow was moored in the centre of the river mounting two long twelves and a masked battery opposite to the right, the number of guns unknown. The reach which these forts command is a mile and a half: the land makes an elbow where these forts are, which obliged the Barracouta to haul athwart the river, to get her broadside to bear: the whole of this Landa river is very narrow, but near the forts not

one third additional to her length. Both sides of this river towards the fort, appear tolerable clear from the mast head, interspersed with pleasant hills inhabited by the Chinese. The tides are pretty regular, six hours and six hours, running a knot and a half per hour. This river is too serpentine and narrow to admit sailing up; sweeps, towing, or tiding it up, are the only modes that can be resorted to. The great branch of Borneo river, before mentioned, when up it twenty miles, divides into two; the branch running north being called Tampasan river, the other still retaining the name of Borneo. The Tampasan branch leads to old Sambas; it is from hence they get their supplies of rice and provisions, by the two cuts above the town of Sambas, which re-unites the Landa and Borneo streams. There are roads from the great branch leading to the town, fort, and palace. Since the Dutch abandoned Sambas, three sultans have reigned on this musnud (within fifty years or thereabouts;) there are four Pangerans, Annam being the most daring of the whole. His naval force consists of the Portuguese ship of 400 tons, one brig, and eight or ten large fighting prows, besides his allies from Borneo proper with ten large prows. The population amounts to twelve thousand Dayers and Malays, and thirty thousand Chinese.

Under the head mineralogy we have given a detailed account of the principal sources of its industry. Sambas produces besides gold, ten piculs of birds' nest annually, (of an inferior quality,) much ebony, rattans, wax, &c. The trade here is much the same as at Pontiana, and susceptible of a ten fold increase; it is every way superior to the latter for the capital of a large mart. The country is better cleared and hence susceptible of more easy cultivation; the land more elevated and less swampy, consequently healthier; the river deeper and farther navigable; the population more dense, and the land being clear of jungle more capable of being increased; besides, it is the vicinage of the most considerable gold mines on all Borneo. The sultan of Pontiana would make it his capital, if desired; his apprehensions of the power of the Sambas princes lead him to give the preference to Pontiana.

The town of Calaca, belonging to the raja of Borneo proper, lies north of Tanjong Datu; it is the principal port of trade south of the capital, and the mart of the Sedang country: here much grain is produced, one hundred pikuls of black birds' nest, two hundred pikuls of wax, some gold, pepper, camphor, &c. but the tin mines, before mentioned, are utterly neglected. There are several other towns upon each of the rivers along this coast; the principal ones are Salat, Bacalo, Pasir, and Baram; they produce nearly the same articles as the above, which are however sent on to the capital, as fast as collected.

It is here necessary to observe, that all the rocks and shoals laid down on this coast, do not exist at all; such as Volcano island, the Byhors, Krenpel, the whole Slykenburgh, five Comadas, &c. Having beat up this coast twice, and carefully surveyed the whole, I can declare a finer, and clearer coast does not any where exist; the old chart published by A. Dalrymple is much more correct than the recent ones. The numbers of immense drifts and floating isles hereabouts must have given birth to all these imaginary dangers.

The town of Borneo proper, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, lies in latitude 5° 7' north; it is situated fifteen miles up one of the finest rivers in the world, with three fathoms low water on the bar and a rise and fall of fifteen feet; a correct plan of the river and town is published by Mr. Dalrymple: here are mud docks for vessels of 5 or 600 tons. The town consists of about three thousand houses built on stakes, in the middle of the river, with a population altogether of fifteen thousand souls, Chinese, Malays, Moruts, &c.

The palace is slightly fortified, but the raja of Pontiana says, the raja of Borneo proper is preparing the means of defence, apprehending the resentment of the English in vindicating the rights of their flag, so frequently insulted by them with impunity: however, as there is sufficient water for a line of battle ship to the city, nothing need be apprehended from them. The remains of a stone fort up the river is still seen, but the one on Pulo Laboan is destroyed. Both banks of the river are planted with pepper, which formerly produced sixty thousand pikuls annually; these are now running to decay from want of commerce. The Chinese junks, for years past, have ceased touching here, from the numberless piratical depredations committed upon them; and the Portuguese from Macao have attempted to renew the trade from time to time; but at length in 1808, their agent withdrew to Macao, a large ship having

been cut off and the crew murdered the year preceding. They now have no other resource but piracy; and the produce, such as it is, finds its way in prows to Tringanu, Sambas, Pontiana, Lingin, and Malacca. Very large quantities of the finest camphor in the world is procurable here; it comes down from the Morut country by the great river, a great deal of wax, some gold, much birds' nest of an inferior quality, any quantity of sago, cassia, clove bark, pepper, betel-nut, rattans, camphor oil, &c. tripan, tortoise shell, &c.

The hills hereabouts are clear of jungle and wear a beautiful appearance, and without the aid of history, bear evident marks of a more extensive population and culture. There are plenty of black cattle, buffaloes, goats, fruits and vegetables of all kinds, abundance and variety of fish, turtle, &c. The articles best suited for this market are coarse China, white cangyans, brass plates, China crockery, brass wire, tea, sugar candy, coarse China silks and satins, blue and white coarse guras, and salampories, coarse ventipallam handkerchiefs, arcot chintzs, iron, and steel, quallies, cooking utensils, and other articles suited to a Malay market, all coarse; no opium. The Borneo catty is two and half lbs.

The English have been very desirous of a port in the China seas for ages past, but have generally appeared to stumble on the most unhealthy and ill-adapted places possible, such as Balambangan, Pulo Condore, &c. and even the principal object of Lord Macartney's embassy was the obtaining of a cession of this nature. But if a capital harbor, a navigable and majestic river, a productive country, a healthy site, population ready formed, and a commerce all sufficient to pay the expences of an establishment (within one hundred miles of Balambangan,) is required, the East India Company ought to have pitched upon Borneo proper. It was once a most flourishing country, and a very short period under British auspices would render it the first mart in the east China Malayan commerce. There are large populous towns of Moruts, and orang Idan, who abhor the Malays, but who would be soon reconciled to a milder and less traitorous government.

Kimanis lies in latitude 5° 80' north; this is the first port on this coast ceded to the Eng- by the sultan of Sulo. The town lies ten miles up the river, at the foot of some of the most beautiful hills I ever saw; and are inhabited by thirty five thousand orang Idan; the river is small and almost choaked up at the mouth. This province has the following sea ports in it, viz. Kimanis, Benome, Papal, and Pangalat; each governed by orang Kayas, and still continue to send their produce to Borneo proper, consisting of ten pikol of birds' nest annually, two hundred pikuls of wax, two pikuls of camphor, and cassia, sago, betel-nut, and pepper, as much as required; tripan, camphor oil, and rice; with fruit, fish and provisions of sorts which are cheap and plentiful. The articles mentioned as fit for Borneo answer here, only their produce is had about fifty per cent cheaper.

The province of Kiney Baulu has the following sea ports: Putatan, Mangatal, Innanam, Labatuan, Mangabong, Tawaran, Sulaman, Ambung, Abai, Tampasuk, and Padasan. The whole of this province is tremendously high; the stupendous mountain of Kiney is about fifteen miles from Tampasuk which at present is the most considerable pirate port in the Malay seas, and belongs to the raja of Borneo proper. The pirates frequenting this place have committed such depredations hereabouts, as to have induced the English to call the north of Borneo, pirates' point. These desperate banditti originally resided at Tawaran, but were compelled to leave it from the resentment of whole tribes of orang Idan. The whole of this province is very fertile; it is the source of all the great rivers on the island and is more populous with the aborigines of the country, than perhaps the rest of the island put together. The gold mines of Tampasuk have been mentioned; there are also mines of rock crystal. Tawaran and several other places abound in goats and cattle. Abai has a small harbor, and the whole of this coast is accurately laid down by Lieut. James Burton, in the sloop Endeavor. There are produced in this province much wax, tortoise shell, very fine camphor, sago, rattans, and a red birds' nest (which comes from Mantanane isle, to Pandasan.) They send their produce to Borneo proper. The pirates are commanded by datus from Borneo proper. The lake in the vicinity of Kiney Baulu, is said to be delightful; it is many miles in circumference, well cultivated, populous, and productive; it is said to be very cold from the extreme elevation, and the inhabitants are almost as fair as Europeans. There is a valuable coral tree somewhere hereabouts.

The Bay of Maludu, on the north of Borneo, is thirty miles in length and from four to six in breadth, with numberless rivers flowing into it. There is no danger on the right hand shore going up, but what is seen; on the larboard shore considerable coral reefs are met with. Laurie and Whittle's chart of it, is tolerably correct. The principal towns, are Sungy Bassar, nearly at the head of the Bay, and Bankaka on the left; the former, under Sheriff Mahomed, sends its produce to Sulo; the latter under orang kayas, trade with Borneo proper. The British when last at Balambangan, threw up a small redoubt on the Bankaka side, with a view to supplies of rice and provisions; and this part is tranquil and a good roadsted, being sheltered from the swell brought in by the sea breeze.

The rich and valuable fishery of copis or Ceylon oyster in this bay has been mentioned; it might be rendered of considerable value. The whole of the rivers for miles up abound in rattans; Mr. A. Dalrymple thinks four thousand tons might be easily cut down every year without exhausting it, and sent by junks to China. There are forests of beautiful pines of stately growth, well calculated for the largest masts, and in high esteem at China. There is no quarter of the world which abounds more in that species of the sea turtle (called by the Malays pakayan) which yields the shell; any quantity may be had on all the shores and isles of this bay.

The interior abounds in camphor, which can be had in any quantities; so vastly abundant is it, and so little does the orang Idan know of the extreme value of this commodity, that a bamboo of camphor may be procured in exchange for a bamboo of salt. The petty towns are Sandeck, Bowengun, Patasan, Pone, and Milawi. *It produces in one year two hundred pikuls of wax, fifty pikuls of tortoise shell, ten pikuls of best camphor and as much inferior; ten pikuls of birds' nest at ten dollars the catty, 1st camphor twenty-five; rattans one dollar per pikul, tortoise shell one dollar the catty, wax twenty the pikul.* Articles required are the same as at Borneo proper. Rice, provisions, fish and fruits, are abundant and cheap; the sugar-cane also.

The province of Paytan is the principal district for camphor of any in the world. Whole forests for miles every where meet the eye, and the produce from them, is the finest that can be conceived, large and transparent as Chin-chew sugar-candy. The principal towns are Pitan, Kinarubatan, Kulepan, and the famous town of Sugut. The coast is so full of coral reefs, and has been so very indifferently surveyed, that it is only frequented by prows: there is a road from Sugut to Bankaka in Maludu bay. Much wax, tripan, sago, &c. is produced here.

Labuk, has the towns of Camburcan, Labuk, and Songsohi; its produce is somewhat similar to that of Paytan with the addition of clove bark and birds' nests.

Sandacan;—this celebrated harbor has been already mentioned as one of the finest in the world. The towns within it are Towsam, Duyom, Lu, Bukean, Dom or Doung, Seagally-hood and Tong luly luku; all these are governed by Datus from Sulo, who have expressly settled here to collect the prodigious quantities of birds' nests abounding in this district. They are procured here at ten dollars the catty and sent to Sulo, with tripan, wax, &c. The Sulos are very jealous of any ships going in here and will leave no attempt untried in cutting off a vessel going in, although an English port.

In the province of Mangidora lies the great river Kinnabatingan which is navigable a vast way up, with several towns of orang Idan on its shores. The other towns are Salasany Supabuscul, Tambesan which forms also an elegant harbor, Laboan or Saboan, Tuncu, Salurong, Giong, and Maday, which has a gold mine, before mentioned. The whole of this province it is said will produce above one hundred pikuls of the finest birds' nest, much black ditto, some camphor, tripan, honey, wax, dammer, Buru mats, fine spars;—sago, and pepper were formerly largely cultivated here. The pearl banks of Tawi Tawi have been mentioned.

Tirun;—the sea ports of this last mentioned and valuable province, ceded to the English by the Sulos, are chiefly inhabited by Buguese people. The towns are Sibuku, Sambakung, Leo or Ledong, Sikatak, Sabellar, Kuran or Barrow, Talysion Dumaung, Tapean Durian. The principal ports are Kuran and Sibucu; they produce a large quantity of very fine white birds' nest, a quantity of black ditto, much dammer, sago, tripan,

wax, rattans, camphor, honey, Buru mats, gold, &c. The people of Tapeandurian are represented as very ferocious, and the sea coast hereabouts requires surveying.

The ports of Pasir and Coti, originally belonged to the king of Benjarmasing; very fine birds' nest is procured here at twenty dollars the catty; much gold, tripan, wax, &c.

Were Borneo to be settled, I think the principal factory ought to be at Borneo proper. The second at Sambas. The third at Benjarmasing. The forth at Pasir, the fifth at Tabesan or Sandacun.

In looking over the maps of the world, it is a melancholy reflection, to view so large a portion of the habitable globe as all Borneo, abandoned to barbarism and desolation; that with all her productive wealth and advantages of physical situation, her valuable and interesting shores should have been overlooked by all Europeans; that neither the Dutch nor the Portuguese with centuries of uncontrolled power in these seas, should have shed a ray of civilization on shores bordering upon their principal settlements; that her ports and rivers, instead of affording a shelter to the extensive commerce of China, should at this enlightened period of the world hold out only terror and dismay to the mariner; and that all that she should have acquired from the deadly vicinage and withering grasp of Dutch power and dominion has been the art of more speedily destroying each other and rendering themselves obnoxious to the rest of mankind. Now that her destinies are transferred to the enlightened heads and liberal hearts of Englishmen; now that her fortunes are embarked under the administration of a wise and liberal government; we may confidently hope that a happier order of things, will, under the blessings of an all ruling providence, speedily restore these extensive shores to peace, to plenty and to commerce, and we ardently trust another age may not be suffered to pass away, without exhibiting something consolatory to the statesman, the philosopher, and the philanthropist.

SOME PARTICULARS RELATING TO SULO, IN THE ARCHIPELAGO OF FELICIA, BY J. HUNT Esq.

THE Sulo Archipelago (called by the Spaniards the Archipelago of Felicia,) consists of an immense number of islands lying in a north east and south west direction, the principal of which is called Sulo, from its capital town (also named *Sug*) the residence of the sultan, on the north west part; its length from east to west is about ten leagues, its breadth twelve miles and its circumference ninety-six.

This island was originally called by the natives Banjar Kulan or the little Banjar, the present inhabitants having originally emigrated from Banjar Masing on Borneo, and was, for a considerable time, subject to that empire: the name of Sulo, or, as the inhabitants pronounce it, Sulok, was given it by Sayed Alli from Mecca, perhaps from its having been so designated in the most ancient charts of the Chinese empire, and hence if its etymology might be examined, I conjecture it to be from *Su*, an island (in the Chinese language) and *Lao*; or the island of the Laos.

There are few landscapes in the world, that exhibit a more delightful appearance than the sea coasts of Sulo; the luxuriant figure of the enchanting hills exhibit a rich scenery hardly ever equalled, and certainly never surpassed by the pencil of the artist. Some with majestic woods that wave their lofty heads to the very summits; others with rich pasturage delightfully verdant, with here and there patches burnt for cultivation, which form an agreeable contrast with the enamelled meads; others again exhibit cultivation to the mountain top, chequered with groves affording a greatful variety to the eye: in a word, it only requires the country-seats, churches, steeples, ancient castles, and the decorations of art and civilized life, to form a terrestial paradise; the miserable huts of the Sulos destroy that harmony of effect, which the blooming beauties of nature so temptingly solicit from the hand of man.

The wet season is from May till September, and the dry from October to April. The prevailing winds are strong gales from the westward in June and July; in August and September the southerly winds blow, and sometimes in prodigious hard gales, which we experienced in 1814 in Sulos roads. In December and January strong northerly gales, with a heavy sea, are experienced in Sulo roads; the rest of the year is subject to light winds, calms, and variable airs inclining to the south west, during the wet, and to the north east, during the dry season. The greatest height of the thermometer from March to September was 87°; its greatest depression 75°, which was generally early in the mornings.

This island, it is said, was generally peopled with Papuans, in a state of savage nature, who even at this day inhabit some of the mountains of the interior. The Chinese were, from time immemorial, in the habit of trading to these isles for pearls, but the first people that shed any rays of civilization among them, were the orang Dampuwan (or, as the Chinese call them, Sonpotualan;) they governed the sea-coasts, built towns, planted grain, opened the rivers. They however found the aborigines such a faithless race, that they at length abandoned it, and indeed during their sojourn, knocked as many on the head as they could come at. At length, the fame of their submarine riches reached the chiefs of Banjar, who opened a communication with them; they at length planted a colony there, sending over immense numbers of settlers and with a view to conciliate the faithless possessors of this rich isle, a *putri* of

exquisite beauty was sent and married to the principal chief, from which alliance have sprung all the subsequent sovereigns that have governed Sulo: by this treaty of marriage, the island became tributary to the Banjarmasing empire.

Among the improvements introduced by the Banjar people, are particularly enumerated, the elephant, the teak tree, and the cinnamon; the place becoming a delightful spot with considerable commercial advantages, attracted a number of settlers from Borneo and the southern isles of the Philipines, and they managed to drive the race of Papuans to the almost inaccessible hills for shelter and concealment, in which state of constraint, their numbers must have sensibly diminished.

Their history contains such a mass of fables, that even had it been possible to procure a copy, little advantage, in a historical point of view, could have been derived from it: I shall only mention such parts of it, as I recollect, which can be any wise interesting. The sultan of Magindanao informed me, it was conquered by his forefather, and in the days of their splendor, was also tributary to their empire. The arrival of the Chinese emperor Songtiping, with all his numerous retinue and subjects, and settling on the northern ports of *Borneo*, gave that empire a weighty preponderance in these seas: A. D. 1375. The daughter of Songtiping was married to a celebrated chief of Arabia, who visited those shores in quest of commerce, named Sherif Alli. Their son and grandson, in their subsequent reigns, were particularly successful, in extending their conquests: the latter, named Mirhome Tambang de Buduk, conquered not only the whole of the Philipines, but likewise rendered the Sulo empire tributary to Borneo proper. Three reigns after this, the sultan of Borneo proper, named Nakoda Rogam, married the daughter of the chief of Sulo, named Putri Miranchani; the fruit of this marriage was Mirhome Bongsu, who succeeded to the throne while yet an infant and while his uncle Pangeran de Gadong was regent. Sulo, at this period, was populous, strong and commercial, and felt desirous by taking advantage of this young prince's minority, not only of shaking off its dependance upon the Bornean empire, but of enlarging its dominion at the expense of the hitherto governing state. The regent too, wishing to usurp the throne, and finding his own chiefs hostile to his ambitious views, sent an embassy to Sulo, demanding assistance from that state, in fixing him upon the throne, and in payment for the stipulated aid, promised them the entire sovereignty not only of all the isles comprising the Sulo government but the whole of the north of Borneo, from Kimanis north about as far as Cape Kaneongan in the straits of Macassar, which formed the limits of their monarchy on the great island of Borneo. The Sulos afforded the stipulated aid, but without effecting the required object. The Pangeran de Gadong, having been surprized by the partizans of the lawful prince on Pulo Cherimin, was put to death with most of his followers. The Sulos escaped without any material loss, but having been at a great expense in this undertaking, and feeling their power at a distance from the capital, they conquered and took possession of the whole of the promised cession from Maludu Bay to Tulusyan, and have ever since retained possession of the same by virtue of conquest.

The first chief that assumed the title of sultan, was Kamaludin; this was before Islamism was introduced into Sulo; at this period, whether the Sulos were of the Hindu persuasion like the Javanese, or mere idolators like the Dayaks, is a point on which I could derive no certain information. But I believe the people on the sea coasts, with the prince and chiefs were Budhists; and the *orang duson* and mountaineers, pagans. Before the decease of the abovementioned prince, there arrived at Sulo a merchant from Mecca; he was a Sherif, named Sayed Alli; he converted one half of the islanders, the Budhists, to his own faith, the other half still remained cafirs; he was elected sultan, reigned seven years, and died at Sulo. So celebrated was the first teacher of Mahomed's doctrine, that his tomb rendered the spot the Mecca of the east, and a thousand fables are related of the miracles performed by it. The Spaniards, on their arrival in these seas, destroyed the tomb as preparatory to the introduction of their own faith. The Sherif left a son, named *Batua*; who succeeded to the throne. Batua had two sons; the eldest named Mahomed Sabudin; the youngest Nasarudin. When Batua died, *Sabudin* succeeded him and made war on Nasarudin; the latter ran to Tawi Tawi, where he established himself, and built a large fort of piles. He reigned at the latter

Isle seven years, and had borne him two sons; the eldest Amir-ul-momin, the youngest Datu Bantilan. The Tawi Tawi chief at length compromised matters with his brother at Sulo, both agreeing to reign together at Sulo. They divided the empire between them, half and half. Amir-ul-momin, when he grew up, was by both brothers confirmed the successor to the empire, and on their deaths ascended the throne: during this prince's reign another Sherif arrived from Mecca, named Sayed *Berpaki*; he succeeded in converting almost the whole population to Islamism. Jealousies sprung up between the brothers, and the sultan Amir made war on his brother Bantilan. The civil distractions lasted about five years, and the reigning sultan Amir, being conquered, was compelled to fly to Basilan, his brother *Bantilan* becoming sultan of Sulo. Ever since the arrival of the Spaniards (1566) at the Philippines a desultory war had been waged by them against the Sulos; but in the year 1646 on the 14th of April, peace was concluded between them at the mediation of the king of Magindanao, upon which the Spaniards withdrew from Sulo, which they had conquered and on which they had built the present fort, reserving to themselves the sovereignty of some of the other islands; the Sulos agreed at the same time to give, in sign of peace and brotherhood, a tribute of three vessels of rice annually.

The deposed prince that had fled to Basilan, entered into a secret correspondence with the Spaniards at Sambungan, who, after two years of his exile, sent a ship from Manilla, and carried away sultan Amir-ul-momin to Manilla. About five years after the departure of the sultan to the capital of the Philippines, an English ship arrived at Sulo, with a Madras civilian, named Alexander Dalrymple (on board the Cuddalore, Capt. Baker, June 1759) He remained three months at the island, in completing his sales and purchases; to him the sultan Datu Bantilan communicated his grief regarding the confinement of his brother by the Spaniards. He told him, that Amir's family had been left behind, and that his wife had been left behind, and that his wife had been delivered of twins, a son and a daughter, both begotten by Amir before he was idnapped by the Spaniards, and that the boy was called *Mahomed Israel*. Dalrymple consoled him by assuring him, he pledged himself to restore him his brother from Manilla. At this time a commercial treaty was concluded by Dalrymple between the Honorable East India Company, and the Sulo chiefs, by which it was stipulated, "That an annual cargo should be sent from Madras to Sulo, which the natives agreed to receive at a hundred per cent profit, and that they would provide a cargo in readiness, fit for the China market, which should realize an equal profit there; after deducting all expences, all overplus to be carried to the credit of the Sulos." After this Dalrymple sailed, but did not reach Madras till after three years from his first outset in the Winchelsea, April 22, 1759.

Six months after Dalrymple's departure, a fleet of Spanish ships consisting of two large and forty small craft, with about two thousand Christians, arrived before Sulo, accompanied by sultan Amir. The Castilians commenced warlike operations against Sulo, which lasted seven days, but were repulsed at every point, on which they returned with disgrace to Manilla. They lost about a thousand men (this account is from the Sulos) but on the part of the Sulos one only was killed. About two years after this attempt, they came again with five large vessels and eighty smaller craft, having on board ten thousand men, commencing warlike operations without ceasing; they failed in carrying the fort of Sulo, but got possession of a port called Taujong Matonda, where they were enabled to make a stand: they then erected a church and wooden fort. Here they established a colony, and their governor was named *Campas*. About fifteen days after this conquest, the people both old and young, of both sexes, became uneasy, and all in a body fled to the woods as far as the mountain *Dato*: on this, an innumerable host of inhabitants of the mountains, a species of negro, descended, the chief of whom was called *Sri Kala*; he had a follower by name *Sigalo* who offered to lead the men to battle against the Castilians however numerous they might be, and never to retreat an inch. The Tamangong Sri Kala accepted the offers of Sigalo and they determined to march together; desiring the rest of the mountaineers to be in readiness and to await the signal, & if they found all was quiet, to enter the fort en masse. The Tamangong Sri Kala and Sigalo had with them a young woman of exquisite beauty, named Purmassuri, with a view to cover their designs, and deceive the unwary and lustful Spaniards, as to their real

object in entering the fortress. The Tamangong told Sigalo, that the day being *jumat* and the hour then very propitious, he thought the attempt ought that instant to be made; the three persons then entered and whilst cajoling the guard, the signal was given. The mountaineers rushed in with their arms and murdered every Castilian without regard to sex or age, until the dead corpses laid in heaps in the court before the fortress, and those that then escaped the massacre returned with precipitation to their ships and set sail. About three days afterwards they landed at a cape called Tackliby, attacked the place, and made themselves masters of it, built a fortification of wood, and held it about fifteen days, when the inhabitants and mountaineers rose in a great body and drove the Castilians from Tackliby with great slaughter. Of those who escaped, some fled inland and were subsequently murdered or enslaved; the remainder immediately set sail for Manilla.

Some time after this, the Pudako Sri sultan Bantilan died, and his son Mahomed Alim-ud-deen ascended the musnud and was proclaimed sultan. After a lapse of time, Mr. A. Dalrymple arrived again (June 1762,) as commander of the London packet, with a cargo in conformity to the stipulated treaty: it turned out however unfortunately; this was ascribed to the Indiaman that followed with the bulk of the cargo, not being able to find Sulo, who went on with it to China, from whence it arrived at Sulo via Manilla; the captain that brought it gave it on credit to the chiefs, before they had paid the first debt. On his arrival, Mr. D. found the small pox had swept away many of the principal inhabitants, and dispersed the rest, so that very ineffectual measures had been taken for providing the China cargo, and to this disappointment was added that of the death of sultan *Bandahara* (by the Sulo account, *Bantilan*:) these accidents frustrated all hopes of profit, but did not prevent Mr. D. from obtaining a grant for the Company of the island of Balambangan, of which he took possession in January 1763 on his return to Madras. Dalrymple enquired of the reigning sultan, what had become of his dear friend the sultan Bantilan; Mahomed replied, that the late sultan, his father, had died about a year before. D was very much affected at this intelligence and expressed great grief, that circumstances had prevented his fulfilling his promise with the late sultan and obliged him to postpone bringing back his brother the sultan Amir from Manilla; but he said, he was going with six ships to that port and should the English succeed in their operations, he should soon return with the sultan. Mahomed upon this professed great friendship for D. and offered to accompany him, but which proposal was not accepted.

On the 6th October, 1763, the English carried the fortress of Manilla, where Dalrymple found sultan Amir and agreed to reinstate him on the throne of his ancestors; he ceding the north end of Borneo and the south end of Palawan and the intermediate islands, which was accordingly agreed to, and Dalrymple brought Amir to Sulo, where he was reinstated on the throne of his ancestors seven days after his arrival, with the highest acclamations of the people, and with the entire consent and approbation of Mahomed Alim-ud-deen and his Ruma Bechara; the former having with his hand and seal not only confirmed the throne to his uncle, but ratified the treaty of cession to the East India Company. The English account is, Dalrymple sailed from Madras for Sulo, China and Europe, in July 1763; on the 7th Sept. he arrived at Sulo, and during his stay there, obtained a grant for the East India Company of the Sulo possessions on Borneo, from Kimanis to Tapeandurian, with the south end of Palawan, and all the intermediate islands: having visited Manilla and Balambangan, he sailed for China and arrived in England in July 1765; to confer with the Court of Directors.

When Manilla fell, the Spaniards were dispossessed or withdrew from their possessions in the Sulo archipelago. Sultan Amir having brought with him from Manilla a number of mythological and religious paintings venerated by the Chinese, with some opulent, enterprizing people of that nation, succeeded in reestablishing the ancient commercial relations with the China empire; the junks visiting them annually ever since, and which commerce had been put a stop to by the Spaniards, on their first arrival in their vicinity.

Mr. Dalrymple remained a considerable time at Sulo, visiting the islands and making the necessary preparatory arrangements for the permanent establishment of the British power in these seas, and having bound sultan Amir in a sacred promise to reign with equity, departed for Madras.

It was not till the year 1773, that the East India Company established a small settlement on the uninhabited island of Balambangan, with a view of forming an emporium for eastern commodities in aid of their China trade; and this island was selected from possessing two noble harbors. Troops and stores were accordingly sent from India, and numbers of Malays and Chinese began to settle here: but in the year 1775, the Indian troops being very sickly, the cruizers sent on commercial expeditions, the fort was surprized by the Sulos; who rushed into the place, put the sentries to death and turned the guns upon the troops, principally Buguese; the few settlers recently reduced in numbers, made their escape to the vessels in the harbor, and proceeded to sea; the booty obtained by the Sulos in guns, specie, piece-goods, and produce, public and private, was immense: the loss to the East India Company has been estimated at £75,000 independent of that of individuals: the three residents after Mr. Dalrymple at Sulo were Mr. Herbert, Mr. Coles, and Capt. Sweeding.

The following is an extract from the newspapers of the day on this important transaction: "By advice overland from Bencoolen, the Sulos, this day (24th April, 1775) took the East India Company's new settlement of Balambangan, and in it effects to the amount of 926,000 Spanish dollars and upwards; the garrison and other servants to the company retiring to labour another settlement, with effects to the amount of 240,000 dollars; however thirteen of the garrison were missing."

"The above island of Balambangan, concerning the settlement of which, a dispute has been for some time subsisting between England, Spain, and Holland; is situated at the north end of Borneo and lately belonged to the king of Sulo, who in 1762 made a cession of it to the English. In 1763 Mr. Dalrymple took possession of it for the East India Company and hoisted the flag there, since which a proper force has been sent and a regular settlement made on the island, under the direction of Mr. Herbert one of the council of Bencoolen, who was appointed governor. This gave umbrage to the Spaniards and the Dutch, who are extremely jealous of our fixing a trading station so near the Philippines and the Moluccas; and accordingly the last advices previous to that of its being taken as above by the Sulos, mentioned, that the Spanish governor of Manilla had peremptorily required Mr. Herbert to evacuate that island. With this demand Mr. Herbert did not think proper immediately to comply, and when the intelligence came away, he was preparing to defend himself, though with little prospect of success against so superior a force. According to the treaty of Munster in 1648, the only treaty subsisting between the English and Spaniards which explains and regulates the rights and limits of the latter in the East Indies, the Spaniards have no right to extend their East India navigation farther than they had at that time carried it; consequently they can have no claim to Balambangan."

The only reasons given for these acts of the Sulos, are their innate love of plunder, their treacherous dispositions, their apprehensions that by the trade concentrating at Balambangan, Sulo would lose her commercial advantages; and there is not a doubt that what Capt. Forrest has advanced is the fact, that they were instigated to the atrocious act by the Spaniards at Samboangan, and the Dutch at Manado and Ternate. The Sulos boast of their deeds and do not conceal that they obtained every assistance and supply of powder, arms, &c. from Samboangan and Ternate, and to this, the honor of the British flag has never been vindicated by the punishment of these atrocious pirates. In 1803, Balambangan was reestablished by Mr. Farquhar, and the garrison of Amboyna, but the establishment being expensive, without any prospect of immediate advantage to the East India Company, who had to bear the whole expense, while the profits fell to private adventurers, in 1804 the settlement was withdrawn. This island has been universally acknowledged to be happily situated for a commercial intercourse with all the valuable trading ports on the west coast of the China seas and the circumadjacent isles, a noble and appropriate half-way house for the China trade; nor is there a doubt, could the finances of the East India Company have borne the expense for a few years, their commerce would have ultimately derived those great advantages expected from it by its original planner, LORD PIGOT; and subsequently by that great and able politician and sound statesman, the Marquis Wellesley.

In 1808, on the death of the old sultan Alli-ud-deen, the small pox raged so violently at

Sulo, that most of the principal inhabitants fled from the capital to avoid the infection; among these was the heir apparent Datu Bantilan, during whose absence, his nephew Alli-ud-deen was elected by the Ruma Bechara to the musnud. In 1810, Dato Bantilan (then at Porong) finding no hopes of getting reinstated, determined to assert his rights by force: he brought with him a large body of men and prows, threw up a stockade on the southern side of the roadstead within half a gun's shot from the fort, and besieged it for six weeks, but from want of ammunition and more ample resources, he was at length obliged to raise the siege and retire to Porong, where he shortly afterwards died, bequeathing his rights to his eldest son and heir, Dato Adanan. The latter, with a view to strengthen himself, and to enable him at some future period to assert his claims with success, has formed a family alliance with the sultan of Coti, by marrying his daughter. He made repeated proposals to me, as the British agent, to sign a treaty offensive and defensive promising to confirm to the East India Company all their rights as formerly ceded by the three respective treaties with Dalrymple, stipulating for himself, the being placed upon the throne of Sulo. (Aug. 1814).

The succession of sultans to the musnud of Sulo is as follows, viz. first, Malhombat Batua: second, Malhome de Pulow: third, Malhome Hadungan: forth, Malhome Mahomed Nassaludeen: fifth, Malhome Bantilan: sixth, Malhome Mahomed Israel: seventh, Malhome Mahomed Allimudin: eight, Malhome Mahomed Allimudin the second: ninth, Malhome Mahomed Serafudin: tenth, sultan Mahomed Alli-ud-deen the reigning prince.

In most of the Malay states the sultan is despotic: in Sulo the government is an oligarchy vested in the sultan and datus, in the Ruma Bechara assembled; earliest navigators have observed, "the great oppress the poor, because the king has not a proper degree of authority." See *Camelli, Correri, Gombes, Dampier, Sonnerat, and Forrest.*

Even at this day, he is a mere cypher, neither feared nor respected; his orders disputed by the meanest individual, unable to decide on the most trivial points, without the concurrence of his Ruma Bechara. All the sons of every sultan assume the title of Datu and which again descends to all the children of this datu and their progency, ad infinitum; (when addressed by an inferior, they call them by the title of Patik:) the whole of these had formerly a right to a seat and voice in the Ruma Bechara; but as their overgrown number became inconvenient, after the death of sultan Sarafudeen, who had reigned for many years, Paduk Sri sultan Mahomed Alli-ud-deen, the eldest son of the foregoing ascended the throne. He ordered a board of commerce consisting of six members; viz. Datu Maharaja Dinda, Datu Muluk, Datu Bandahara, Datu Tomangong, Datu Miebehar, and Datu Johan, whom he invested with such powers, that even the sultan's commands, without their sanction, should, in commercial affairs, be deemed null and void. He also appointed Datu Naaleba Dulalum, vice-sultan, to act in case of his own indisposition: Datu Mahomed Sakilan, to be his successor to the throne, because his elder brother Mahomed Alum does not wish to undergo the fatigues of office.

But as several powerful chiefs were dissatisfied with this arrangement, not relishing a total exclusion of power, a considerable extension of the Ruma Bechara has taken place, consisting not only of Datus, but of other chiefs, not descended from the blood royal. In 1814 this assembly consisted of viz Datu Maharaja Dinda, Datu Raja muda, Datu Bandahara, Datu Miebehar, Datu Muluk Mandarasa, Datu Johan, Datu Muluk Kahal, Datu Maharaja Laila, Datu Tumangong, Datu Naiyib, Datu Mukbilul, Datu Milbedal, orang kaya Malik, orang kaya Shabundar, Panglema Halis, Datu Sailama, Luximana, orang kaya De Gandong.

The customs, or five per cent ad valorem, on British goods, and an uncertain sum from each junk, are shared in unequal proportions among the sultan and the above chiefs, agreeable to their successive rank; but the quota of each, I know not, and this is the only regular revenue collected. The above titles are not hereditary, but generally for life, depending on the will of the sultan by and with the advice and consent of the Ruma Bechara assembled: for example, Datu Muluk Mandarasa, was turned out of office, whilst I was there, and a person no-wise related to him appointed in his room.

The reigning sultan appoints his successor from his own legitimate progeny, or that of

his fathers: each datu has also his distinct duties and office allotted to him, but what those are, I cannot readily notice. However, the power and weight of the chiefs arise solely from their wealth; or like the Barons of old amongst us, from the number of ambas or retainers each entertain; in 1814, their weight and consequence stood thus, viz. *first*, the sultan with his brothers, datus Allumere and Sakilana, three thousand ambas; *second*, the son of the deceased Raja muda, Datu Jamsid, married to the daughter of Datu Sakilan, three thousand ambas: *third*, Maharaja Dinda, three thousand ambas; *fourth*, Datu Mulbehar, three thousand ambas; *fifth*, Muluk Mandarasa, with the ambas of his deceased brother Datu Mandahara, three thousand ambas; *sixth*, orang kaya Milik, three thousand ambas.

The other members forming the Rama Bechara, are mere cyphers; only adding a numerical force to the integral number to whom they have attached themselves: the parties under the heads, *first*, *second* and *third*, are those that are the most obnoxious to British connexion or to any alteration, from the present piratical pursuits.

Those ambas are slaves purchased from the piratical prows of Magindanao, on the coast of Bisayas and elsewhere and not only add to the power of their respective masters, but are employed in their trading prows, in the birds' nest rocks, & the pearl & tripan fisheries, being the grand source of their wealth and power. A slave is allowed to enjoy the fruits of his labor (occasionally) whilst he lives, but the lord inherits to his estate, and some of them are richer than their lords.

The other titled chiefs are as follows; many of whom are governors of provinces and detached dependencies; Orang Kaya, Abdulhaman; O. K Ahmad, Panglema Irung; O. K. Bantara; O. K. Aber; O K. Adak; O. K. Alip; O K. Satiutu; O. K. Padok uddeen; O. K. Dalmaputla; O. K. Malli; O. K. Malulhai; O. K. Bintara Baid; O. K. Amung; O. K. Abdulhahim; O K. Imbing; O. K. Lakibul-umil; O. K. Ahmad, tuan katib, secretary to the sultan; O. K. Mulatib, tuan kalli, tuan Imaum Musjid, Datu Ossop, Nakib Duongmang, Amaloloto; O. K. Mahomed; O K. Saihid; O. K. Bentos, Panghulu raja.

The other hereditary datus, holding no official situations are innumerable; and lord it over the few untitled freemen that are to be found in Sulo; it is high treason, to compass or imagine their death or dispute their power, except by the act or authority of an equal or a superior. This induces all free settlers to range themselves under some powerful datu.

Considering that Sulo, was once reputed the Mecca of the east, and a great proportion of her population converts to Islamism, it is astonishing how little they know and how much less they follow the doctrines of their faith. There is yet a mosque, but an entire ruin, and for many years past, all religious observances entirely neglected; the only precepts of Mahomed, either observed or known, is the abstaining from swine's flesh, being circumcised, and enjoying a plurality of *women*. They are less bigoted and less attached to the tenets of their religion, than the Malays; of liquors and wines they are excessively fond, and when procurable, indulge in it to excess, with as much glee and with as little scruple, as any dram-drinking Christian; and though polygamy is sanctioned by their religion, I cannot mention the name of a single chief, that had more than one wife; although occasionally indulging in the wantonness of concubinage, it is proverbial in Sulo, that the women wear the breeches.

This indifference to the tenets of Mahomed, I attribute, partly to the prevalence of their original belief, never being completely converted, and to the numbers of Christian slaves, annually imported by the pirate prows from the Philippines. The female Christian, not only solaces his hours of recreation from family duty, but they are the nurses and instructors of the rising generation; the playmates, confidants and companions of their progeny. From their contiguity to the Spanish ports and the commercial intercourse with the ports in the Philippines, they have frequent opportunities of comparing the superior comforts, the valuable acquirements and the improved habits of the converted Indians under the Spanish dominion, with their own miserable institutions, and deplorable ignorance; hence there scarce exists a doubt, that they would long ere this, have become professed Christians but from the prescience, that such a change, by investing a predominating influence in the priesthood, would inevitably undermine their own authority, and pave the way to the transfer of their dominion to the Spanish yoke, an occurrence which fatal experience has too forcibly instructed all the surrounding nations that unwarily embraced the Christian persuasion.

Most of the chiefs at Sulo speak the Malay, but very few can either read or write it; the communication from the Java government was obliged to be read by my juritulis. The Hajis from Java, are the only people that pretend to any considerable proficiency in Malay literature. Many of the Datus speak the Spanish language, and some of them the Chinese fluently; the former they have learnt from the Christian slaves, the latter from the great numbers of that nation, settled all over the Sulo possessions. But the indigenous language of all the islanders is the *Bisayan*; which is the prevalent tongue of all the islands south and of the province of Bisayas on Luconia. The few records private or public that fell under our observation, were also in the Bisayan character. My Malay writer had formed an alphabet, numerical characters, and an extensive vocabulary of the language, but which have, with all my memoranda relative to Sulo, been destroyed by damp and the white ants, before I knew that "Dictionaries of Tagala, Bisaya, Pomganga, &c. were voluminous, and a considerable portion of the number of words they contain, similar to those spoken on Sumatra;" *Marsden's vol.*

Upon the antiquities and curiosities, I must be very short. There are stone images innumerable in the interior of Sulo and the other islands, with other slender antiquities; but I really forgot the particulars; there is one with several arms, several human figures with the snouts of elephants, a dying warrior as large as life in a recumbent posture. At a place called Batu, the back of Sulo or Soog, there are ruins with stone images innumerable, most probably the lost relics of *Hindu idolatry*. The Sulos either cannot or will not afford the enquirer, any rational account of their origin or use; they say, these ancient temples were constructed and are inhabited by Jaens or evil spirits; they gravely affirm, that the images move about to the great consternation of those that have temerity to obtrude on their mysterious haunts.

Similar vestiges of the Hindu worship (I was credibly informed at Manilla) are to be seen in various parts of Luconia; not a doubt can exist that this was the prevailing religion all over these isles antecedent to the introduction of Islamism. I think, abbe Raynal, Sonnerat and some other writers notice this. At Solon Solon, in the province of Hocos, I met several of the unconverted Indians, very much of the appearance of the Hindus in their dress, ornaments, &c. The padri of the district informed me these infelices were of the Hindu persuasion and that neither force nor persuasion had as yet enabled the Spaniards to convert them from their idolatrous worship.

Their houses are generally small, built after the Malay fashion (and similar to the dwellings of all the Indians on the Philippines) raised four or five feet from the ground on piles, the roof and walls formed of attaps and the floor generally of split nibongs: there is not such a thing to be seen as brick, stone or mortar in any of their edifices, public, or private. At Song or the capital, one half of the town projects out into the sea, beyond low water mark, whilst the remainder is on dry land. The Chinese dwellings with two or three belonging to the datus, are lined and floored with plank; a recent and rather uncommon practice. The form of the house is of a long oblong square, containing only one room. In the centre they place their chests, containing their valuables and on these they spread their mats, for sleeping; this space is consequently, hung round with curtains (a dindin) of chintz, with a canopy or calambo. The kitchen is placed in the farther part of the house. They have two flights of bamboo steps or rather a bamboo ladder, leading up to them. The only difference between the palace of the sultan and that of any other individual, is, that the former is larger and considerably higher, a royal distinction here, as well as at Siam and the other kingdoms comprised in the farther Peninsula. The general appearance of the whole, is abominably disgusting, being nasty and filthy beyond conception. The communication between the houses built out at sea, is by a sort of bridge of old prow planks, which form a path way, and a bamboo railing. At night the ladder and plank of each house is pulled up for better security; there is also a platform before or behind each house, for the purpose of drying tripan, the betel nut &c. In various ports of Sulo, the inhabitants, to save the trouble of driving piles to erect their houses on, top the branches of a clump of trees and with bamboo beams, nibong and attaps, form a house upon them, which has induced travellers to affirm that a caste of these people have their habitations in trees.

About two centuries ago, the Sulos were thus described: "Their little houses are covered with mats; the ground is their only seat, the leaves of trees serve them for plates and dishes, the canes (bamboos) for large vessels and the cocoanuts for drinking cups." *Combes*, *Gamelli*, *Correri* and *Dampier*. But manners have altered much in this respect, since the period these authors visited those shores. From their commercial intercourse with the Chinese and Spaniards, they have learnt the comforts and utility of various articles of civilized life; most houses are furnished with benches; some of them with chairs, and when Europeans visit them, they never sit upon the floor; most of them have a small table for eating their victuals off and all their implements of food, whether of culinary or table use, are of Chinese manufacture. Several of the datus have very superb table sets of glass ware of Chinese or Spanish manufacture with gilt edges; which they are proud to display on all occasions: porcelain plates, dishes, cups, and saucers, brass and iron cooking utensils, silver spoons, and Birmingham cutlery, are to be seen in every house; British embossed long-ells for bed carpetting, Madras palampores, China pillows, and chintz curtains, embellish the dormitories of all classes of people and every man has a considerable number of Chinese chests with locks for the safe deposit of his valuables.

As a head dress, most of the Sulo men prefer the pulicat red handkerchief; a few only the fine Javanese handkerchief; which they wear tied round their heads, after the Malay fashion. The middling classes and slaves are however partial to handkerchiefs of the most lively and shewy colors of the French and American patterns. They wear their hair, pluck their beards and dye their teeth black, precisely like the Malay; their eye-brows are shaved into a fine moon like arch, after the Chinese fashion. They also wear the China baju, full sleeves, without buttons, either of rich gauzes, silk and sattins of all colors from China, or of Europe and Coast chintzes of the largest and liveliest patterns; and some wear Manilla grass cloth. The lowest slave, in this respect, vies with the datu in splendor of apparel; their trowsers are like that of the Chinese, made large; they wear an immense long cumberband, generally a Surat patoli (chindai,) which they throw across their shoulders or wrap round their waists, under the chinder, a cotton check sarrong or tajam of Buguese, Mindanao or Sulo manufacture, of a blue, red, or black check; no stockings, but all wear either Manilla or Chinese shoes; the Malay creese and pinding are also their never-failing ornaments. Some of the datus, wear muslin, tight, close-sleeved jackets, to fit close to the body, either of plain, flowered, gold or silver sprigged stuff. But the court dress of the datus, on gala days and solemn occasions, is of the most splendid Chinese mandarin robe, made of costly silks and sattins, embossed and filagreed with gold, pink sattin breeches, decorated with gold dragons and splendidly embossed.

They have also their war-dresses, composed of enormous silk and sattin robes, stuffed and quilted with cotton not unlike a Japanese bed-gown. And many of the datus wear a netted armour of thick brass wire, with helmet, visor and target; manufactured for them, by the Buguese. Their court dresses are made up for them at China.

The women of Sulo, wear a close short baju of cotton of various colors, with kanchings on the back part of their arm; *breeches* of fine white cloth, or of flowered silks of kincobs, with two sarongs, one over their shoulders, the other to serve as a petticoat. They tie their hair a *la Conde*, on the fore part of the head; and wear krabows in their ears, rings on their fingers, and Chinese shoes on their feet. In their houses however, they are naked from the waist upwards, with only their saluar or breeches on, displaying what Mr. Burke calls: "Nature's most perfect display of the sublime and beautiful." They arch their eye-brows with the razor and shave the short hairs round their forehead; their teeth, like the males, are filed and dyed black. The women do not wear the Malay pinding.

The sultan and chiefs, seldom rise before ten or twelve o'clock or later, until the fumes of the opium have evaporated from their aching heads. They then have set before them a gilt edged tumbler full of chocolate, with maccoroni and biscuit from Manilla, and ho ho, and sweetmeats from China. They generally remain in their houses to transact business, or attend their duties in the Ruma Bechara until sun-set: it is then they eat their principal meal, consisting of boiled rice, fish, poultry, fresh beef or dinding, vegetables and eggs prepared with

cocoanut oil in the iron quallies, after the Malay fashion; after this, they take their evening rounds, either to the China shops or to the factories of the Europeans to effect their sales or to make their purchases; and on these occasions, make no ceremony of keeping up the parties, until two or three in the morning, smoking cherouts and opium, and bibing tea, coffee, chocolate, wine or liqueurs. If they remain at home at night, they indulge themselves in smoking opium and chatting over their bargains, or have their slaves to entertain them with Javanese music, or vocal and instrumental music, after the Spanish manner: these are generally Spanish tunes, with Bisayan poetry, though sometimes sung in Spanish. Most of the datus understand either the flute, guitar or violin, and all dance and sing the favorite Spanish dances and ballads.

Every chief, whenever he ventures abroad, whether by night or by day, is accompanied by a band of trusty followers, armed with their favorite weapons, the spear and creese, with targets of light wood to guard them from assassination, or to execute their commands in that way. They live in perpetual distrust of each other; when man steals man, (and *the only law is force*,) such a system of precaution, must be necessary. Every visitor is entertained with sweetmeats, cakes and chocolate, of which it is expected, he will partake; this cloys their stomach and destroys their appetite, so as to render one meal per day sufficient. The poorer classes manage two when they can get it: which on shore is generally the case, as there can be seldom any scarcity; and in comparison with the Malays, they may be said to be in affluent circumstances.

The Sulos, are certainly more polished than the generality of the Malays, though it certainly does not appear in the architecture of their houses: they study the Chinese and Spanish customs and endeavor to imitate them as much as possible, though they affect to despise the one and to hate the other. The form of their government, stamps in a great measure the character of these people and makes the difference between them and the Malays. The slender power of the sultan and the freedom of their mode of government give an unlimited latitude to commercial industry; and the life interest which every slave retains to his personal acquisitions, gives the united mass of people a far greater proportion of activity and industry, than what is to be found among any of their neighbours. But this unshackled liberty renders the chiefs and people haughty, overbearing and insolent, to an inconceivable degree.

A Sulo chief, nor even a slave, neither couches, makes any obeisance, or thinks of squatting down, either to the sultan or to his own master: all is equality in this respect, and there is no general controlling power; so that every man does what he pleases, right or wrong, and only fears what force may effect against force. The Sulos are by no means jealous of their women, they are said to be (for a certain consideration,) more complaisant with their wives than Europeans. Though ever on the watch for gain, and ready to practice every fraud and crime to obtain it; yet they are not avaricious, but spend with facility whatever they gain. There is no instance of a Sulos, hoarding up more property than is necessary for his current trade, and very few that have a rupee or any species of wealth, beyond their numerous retainers, and a prow or two. Their principal passion appears to be a lust of power. They are ostentatious, haughty and consequential, and the object of their life is to increase their number of ambas. Of their vices, they are to a man the most treacherous race in existence; the fate of Balambangan and the thorny intercourse which the Spaniards have had with them, powerfully illustrate this. They are extremely revengeful. An insult offered to their dignity and consequence, is never forgotten and seldom forgiven. Though perpetually boasting of their courage and prowess they are known to be the most dastardly race in the universe. I have seen a Spanish launch, from Samboangan, with sixteen men and a one-pounder, chace about forty, and capture six Sulo prows well armed, with from fifteen to twenty men each and heavier metal.

To comprehend the division of Sulo into districts, or mata matas, I must refer you to Dalrymple's chart of Sulo, contained in the collection of charts, by *Monsr. Dafres Manvillet*; the names of all the capes, hills, and provinces, are therein marked; as without it, much of the following description will be unintelligible.

Formerly, Sulo was subdivided into several chiefships, all subordinate to the capital.

These chiefs were of the rank of Panglema, Maharaja Palwan, and orang Kayas. The commandaries were eight in number viz. first, Loo which comprises the country of Bual, and Patibolan under a panglema; second, Pudul Dahow under a Maharaja Palwan; third, Ponchnab or Panchuar (and Temamtang to the westward;) fourth, Geetong (Sisoman;) fifth, Tanduannan (Tandu;) sixth, Mymboom the district adjacent to that town; seventh, Pug Pug (the district between Bud Dato and the sea on the other side;) eight, Parang (Tukey under Pareang Batang.)

At present, the island is divided into four matas or provinces; viz. first, Panchuar, of which Soog or Sulo is the capital; second, Parang in which Parang and Maybun are the chief towns; third, Geetong, Suo. is the principal town; fourth, Luki, of which Bual is the chief town and in Luki is also incorporated Tandu Gannon a separate province.

The population of Sulo, as stated in most Gazetteers, is computed at sixty thousand souls; however this might have been the case, there is at this day, a very great increase of its population. As I have had an opportunity of inspecting the sultan's archives, of making enquiries of the chiefs of districts, and of personal observation, in sailing round the island, I think the following statement, from the sultan's books, is rather under the truth, than exceeding it, viz two hundred thousand souls.

Sulo town or Soo, the capital, has thirty-five hundred dwelling houses, with a resident population of six thousand Islams and eight hundred Chinese. The produce of the lands and seas circumadjacent, are tepoys, (mother o'pearl) pearls, cocoa, paddi, cattle, buffaloes, horses, &c. A larger population is not reckoned, as more than half the inhabitants, are always out on trading voyages, in the pearl and tripan fisheries and collecting of birds' nests, &c. it has a small river running through the town, ... 6800

The following towns are on the sea coast, in succession taking a westerly course from Soog the capital.

Dhulbatu, two to three hundred men, paddi, ... 200
Matanda, chief lately dead, abundance of fine teak and paddi, . . . 1000
Batu Batu, chief Sherif Hassan; teak forests, paddi, and lanut, . . . 1000
Kanjaia, chief, Parkasa Alum; teak, paddi, sugar, . . . 1500
Timahow, do. Maharaja Palwan Damung; paddi, . . . 2000
Shunugun, do. Panglema Hassan; paddi, sugar, much teak wood; from five to 4000
Silankun, do. Datu Adanun; paddi, sugar, teak, five to . . 4000
Alu, do. orang Kaya Kindinga; paddi, sugar, much teak & cocoanuts, 5000
Bawisan, do Laximana Pata; cocoanuts, and cocoa, . . 1500
Tundok Bunga, do orang Kayas Abu, & Dalamputla; paddi, cocoanuts, sugar, there is a small river here, ... 4000
Padang or Parang, chief, Datu Adonan, orang Kayas, Sully Bungsowan and Maharaja Buan; tepoys, pearls, tripan, birds' nests, paddi, extensive teak forests, . 8000
Lagasan, Maharaja Palwan, Sherif Maharaja Sully, Bangsawan Imbi; paddi, tepoy, pearls, tripan, and much teak wood, ... 2000
Mabingkun, teak, ... ——
Mimbum, Datu Majindi; pearls, tepoy, tortoise shell, tripan, paddi, has a small river; o 2000
Pulopatean, (*near the main*) tepoy, pearls, tortoise, tripan, and shark fins, . 1500
Sikatan, ... ——
Pulo Pata, chief, Panglema Japar; paddi, cattle, ... 7000
Talipow, paddi, ... 000
Pathibulan, chief, Maharaja Palwan Baizid; paddi, ... 2000
Tapokan, chiefs Parkasa Allum, Abdul Hammam; paddi; a small river here, . 1000
Kadungdong, chief, Damaowan, o ang Kaya Amil Humja; paddi, . . 6000
Pito o, chief, orang Kaya Abdul Sammad; paddi, . . . 1500
Tandok, chief, Mamankotara; paddi, ... 8000
Pulo Kamaingan, chief, Laximana Dahman; paddi, cattle, buffaloes, . . 15000
Bait Bait, chief, Laximana Daman; paddi, cattle, horses, and buffaloes, . 9000
Bulit Kutin, chief, Tuan Mandangan; do. do. do. do. and has a small river, . 3000

Pulo Tulain, orang Kaya, Abdul Suminud: forms a noble harbour with the main,	3000
Bohol, Panglema Daoud; many pirates, paddi, cattle, buffaloes, horses, and a small river,	6000
Kansipat, chiefs Paduka Tahil, Paduka Atti, paddi, horses, cattle, buffaloes, and some tripan,	4000
Soo, chief, Mamanka Abdulla; paddi, much teak timber,	6000
Boon Boon, paddi,	1000
Tuup, chief, Parkasa Alum, teak forests,	1000
Lahim; paddi, cocoa, pepper,	— —
Taglibi, chief, Tuan Tahil; paddi, much teak wood,	400
Buang Hinan, chief Panglema Kamba; do.	4000
Patikol, chief, Panglema Asib; paddi, cattle, and much teak,	5000
Tandu, chief named Baiyung; paddi,	1500
Mubu,* do. Datu Bandahara; bamboos, paddi,	1500
The following are the names of the different towns and villages in the interior commencing from Soog.	
Purul, two hours on horseback distant;	7000
Parangtagas, half an hour do.	300
Amu, three hours, do.	500
Mai ata, three hours, do.	1000
Suol, half an hour do.	300
Balian, one and half hours, do.	2000
Buduk, three do. do.	1500
Gitung, four do. do.	6000
Liubud, two do. do.	2000
Siunugan, three do. do.	1500
Tinga, three do. do.	2000
Batu Lubba, four do. do.	800
Parrung Manang, three do. do.	500
Poog-poog, two and half do. do.	1000
Passal, three do. do.	400
Bugsook, one do. do.	200
Dairayan, one and half do. do.	400
Anulin, half do. do.	100
Atul, two do. do.	800
Kaluyan, half do. do.	100
Tabigbunu, half do. do.	50
Pugmasahan, half do. do.	60
Gumantong, half do. do.	60
	149, 370

The names, with the population of the other villages in the eastern districts, are completely destroyed, nor have I the means of replacing them; they complete the population to 200,000 souls.

The situation of all the principal hills inland are marked in Dalrymple's chart before mentioned. The peak of *Timontangis*, near the capital, is the highest land on the island; it is a single mountain detached from the others adjacent, and of a conical figure.

To the southward of it, is a smaller mountain, (I forget its name) of the most luxuriant and delightful appearance, cleared and verdant to its very summit; it has also a remarkable peak, apparently steep and detached, and formed as it were by nature for an observatory. The summit forms itself into table land, gently sloping to a cave, which some years ago fell

* This town is close to Sulo or Soog. The people on the sea coast inhabit what may be termed towns, those inland are chiefly in straggling huts.

in and is now the scite of a populous town, on one of the most agreable spots on the island. To the westward, between Tooki and Timontangis, there is a peaked hummock, called *Higangow*, not very high, but woody; to the east of Tooki, there are groupes of delightful hills; that called *Talipon*, surpasses the rest in beauty; it is tolerably high, though less so than many parts of the island. The south side is half wood and, with savannahs; and the other half cleared, with a streak of wood running down from its summit to its base; this is the spot and almost the only one, where the breed of elephants, is yet kept up.

Duhan is a high hill of a roundish form, almost centrical in the western peninsula. The summit exhibits a wide plain, on which they have built a town; and cut steps in the rock up its steep sides to facilitate egress and ingress. The security which this fastness presents, induces the inhabitants to predatory excursions in the neighbouring plains, and they fly with their booty and cattle up this laddered hill, secure from attack or the vengeance of the sufferers.

Between Duhan and Timontangis, though nearer the fort, are several hills, very remarkable in the prospect they present from the shipping. One of the two flat ones named *Dato*, was the retreat of the Sulos during the Spanish invasion, when the latter had constructed several forts on the island.

Dukala, is a small hill, over-run with timber; it is at the bottom of Bual Bay. Urul, Tandu, and the chain between them to the southward, are chiefly remarkable, for the variegated beauty of their enchanting prospects.

Generally speaking, the west end of the island is hilly, the eastern parts lower, and more plains; the coast is every where interspersed with verdant groves of teak, and Alexandrian laurel; and it is relieving to the eye to view the cultivated plains here and there bursting upon the view with sublimity of effect.

The island of Sulo, was anciently divided into two parts; they say, the sea overflowed the centre of it; but it has long since receded and the bed of it now presents rich cultivation.

The soil of Sulo, is generally of a stiff, loamy, black or red mould. The country between the hills is not a dead flat, but undulated, cultivated in various parts, verdant every where, and watered with numberless streams, which pour down on all sides, and fertilize the country, thus rendering the soil happily adapted for the cultivation of grain and the sugar-cane.

The husbandry of Sulo is very far from being adequate to its natural advantages: from want of proper attention to the irrigation of their lands, the crops in a dry season sometimes fail them; but with the smallest degree of art and industry in collecting and preserving their water, never failing crops would bless the hand of industry in seasons of the greatest drought, where at present the fields are so dried up, as to be scarce worth the trouble of cultivating.

From the great luxuriancy of the soil, the ground is apt to run into grass; so much so that if the land is successively planted with paddi for three years the grass choaks the grain; this induces this indolent race, to neglect grubbing up the roots of trees, but they set fire to the grass, which consumes the leaves from the trees; giving to the whole an appearance at a distance of barrenness.

The sorts of paddi growing at Sulo, are the mulanji, mokal, manahat small, putan etam, putan puti, laiogan, daowa, kansan; but the quantity of this essential grain growing on this beautiful island, by no means equals the consumption, even in abundant years: large quantities of paddi are imported from the ports on Magindanao by the Spaniards; from *Antigue* & *Ho-Ho* in Panay, & from *Samboangan*; from *Bassilan*; from their possessions on Borneo, and the other adjacent isles; from Bengal and Manilla. Three Spanish dollars the picul for new rice, is reckoned an average price.

Pumpkins, cucumbers, radishes, yams, brinjals, sweet potatoes, and the China potatoe of the best kinds, were procurable daily in large quantities in the bazar, during our stay and at very reasonable prices. The other kinds are pa is, dabon, kankong, alumapa, patula, obi, kabasi, maras, batong, panghi, paniwal, tabak, or tobacco, &c.

The bungha magi, lambai, malati, champaka, kauanga, &c. are sold in as great variety

and of the same quality as the flowers at Batavia, for decorating the hair of the Sulo belles.

The fruit here is extremely plentiful, cheap and of a delicious flavor. The mangoes are small, but sweet and luscious; the oranges are equal to those of the China species; the mangustan, jac , durian, champada, and the varieties in the plantain kind equal, in every respect, those on Java and the du oo is thought to be far superior. The other kinds of fruit procurable, or growing here are, viz. buan, bowno, modang, songhai, osow, assam (or tamarind,) sua anda, rambutan, tamusun, makupa, kapoia, purut, jerok gaja, jeroe manis, ananas, (or pine-apple) mumplam, tibada, kamansi, kalapa (or cocoanut,, suagaja, bantak, baiabas.

The timber trees fit for house and ship building, carpentry and joinery works, are procurable here of the first kinds, of the lar est dimensions, and in any quantity. The teak tree flourishes in great luxuriance and is abundant on all parts of the island. The mahogany is equal to that from Hondur is and the blac wood and ebony equal to any produced on Luconia. The three last are ta en to China by the junks, in masts and slabs and sell to good advanta e. The Alexandrian laurel is found here of gigantic dimensions The other kinds are as follows : viz. those of a white tinge are the humalown, puteek, kammatolong, pagatpat, daggil, taisai, nato, balis, manakaian, puhut, tandok, tangisawn baju, bulu. Those of a red caste are : degaiyon, ipeel, tabigi, kankong, lupanga, baijug ; of the black kinds, are arang or ebony in abundance, ballok, mambahaut. Other sorts are, bintangor, pitutan, bakaw, dungon, nunak, malawi, alaotil, banaba, pa omaria.

The other products of Sulo, are as follows: sa o of the best kind; pepper was formerly cultivated to some extent and flourishes here, but from the little demand, they only grow as much as is required for home consumption. The cinnamon is particularly fine, from ten to twenty piculs are annually bar ed for preparing their chocolate, but from the extensive groves of this valuable plant, this article might be greatly encreased. The Sulo cinnamon is not so pungent as that from Ceylon, but differs essentially from the Laurus cassia.

The chocolate cocoa, or cacow, grows all over the island in great luxuriance, and has become the common beverage of all classes. The Spaniards generally export from one to two hundred piculs to Manilla, where it is held in high estimation. Sapan wood, red wood and various dyeing woods are exported for the China market. Indigo equal to that made at Manilla, is manufactured to a small extent but consumed on the island. Turmeric and inger grow here in perfection. The coffee tree also flourishes on the hills, but is not an object of attention. Wheat equal to that of Manilla grows here, and the sugar-cane flourishes; both these articles are confined to their own wants, but might be advantageously extended. The plant that yields the Manilla white rope, and the gamuty is plentiful, and a species of hemp and flax, of which they manufacture their fishing lines is found in all parts. Cotton equal to the Manilla grows in various parts of the island, but can scarcely be said to be an object of their culture. The sandal wood, the clove and nutmeg trees are said to exist on the island. The bread fruit and laka wood are abundant.

Manufactures are at so low an ebb as to be scarce worth mentioning. The principal article manufactured here is a ve etable salt extracted from a ley of burnt sea weeds and nibong, and this is the only salt used all over the Sulo possessions. The marine or bay salt has neither value nor use at Sulo. It is crystallized into solid cakes in iron quallies, & when used, a hard lump of it is stirred about in the potage, until it has the required relish. Prow building may be reckoned the next grand object of their attention. Buguese sarongs and tajams of a very fine texture, tartan-striped, are manufactured here for home use. Sugar, indigo, chocolate and salt-petre are made here equal or very nearly so to their wants. They they have cutlers employed in the manufacture of creeses, and goldsmiths in making up their ornamental jewelry.

Some of the gentlemen who occasionally indulged in a shooting excursion, report that the fields abound with game of various kinds ; partridges, wild ducks, snipes, teal, quail, doves, and some other kinds similar to those on Java were occasionally brought in. The other sorts are called by the natives as follows: billi of two sorts, sambulahan, buggok, bankhow, achang, uak, baoul, kamaso, tindow, komot, mandasian, kangho, kuhsi with yellow feathers,

and the salangan which is the most esteemed of any. Nuries and kakatuas are often purchased here, cheap and in great numbers, but they are also imported by the prows from Ternate and the eastern islands.

The bullocks are fat, juicy, well flavored, and in great abundance all over the island; shipping generally pay from six to eight Spanish dollars for a choice one, but two white coarse baftas will procure them much easier from the country people that daily bring their produce upon the backs of these animals to the great bazar at Sulo. When shipping are here, one of the datus has the exclusive privilege of slaughtering cattle, and then beef is procurable from the shambles at a moderate price. The horses are of Spanish or Manilla breed, full of fire, and hardy, but in general kept in indifferent condition; the country people from the hills come down on them, with a wooden saddle (the seat grooved out) with stirrups and bridle, but it is equally common to see them mounted on bullocks and buffaloes; they are however aways armed cap a-pee and carry lances and targets.

The Chinese slaughter pork with great secrecy, but it is always procurable. They pay a tax to the datus for the privilege of slaughtering, although it is directed to be done with decency, from the strong abhorrence in which they hold the use of swine's flesh. Abundance of wild hogs are every where plentiful. The Chinese get those they use chiefly from the Spanish ports, not daring to rear them.

Sulo is the only island of the Philippines that breeds the elephant. The islanders neither tame nor use them. They were, it is said, originally imported from Benjar and formerly used as in Siam, Cambodia, Pegu, &c. *for religious purposes.* Formerly this island was overrun with these animals, *but the terrible destruction* they occasioned to the plantations, and being no longer venerated under their new religion, have induced the natives to destroy them whenever they could meet with them: and they have instituted a grand hunting match every year, after the grand crop is collected in. *Talipon* is the only spot where the breed of elephants is kept up.

There are goats, some with skins spotted like leopards, and some beautiful dwarf antelopes not much larger then a hare. The other quadrupeds, are called by the natives, amak, ambow, haas, kavilan, kubing, orang utan, bukra, awbal, tingalong, kuting, edok or jackall, &c.

The Sulo market, is abundantly stocked with a great variety of fish of excellent flavor, which may be purchased for a trifle; some of them singularly variegated with blue, purple, silver tinges, &c. Those kinds generally known to Europeans were the skait, the sole, cacab, rock, cod, rice fish, skip jacks, prawns, shrimps, oysters, muscles, shark, and green turtle. The Sulo names are as follows, viz ista, tanghi, pungaluan a fish of considerable length, kotumba, baowis, mumul, anopin, bukan, suling, uuluhow two sorts, palit a blackfish, komai, ista puti, mangsa a large fish, lumbahan boring, sumbilang, tawty, kaitan, kahatong very large and voracious kumbul, dapak, kuambal, laoso, tumbilowhan, panik, manko, ingataan, ista, manghali, sanus, kulabutan, lambana, ulong, kalilong, kannutaha, kagang, bantunan, gamoi very voracious, pari pari, kambang, bubangin, &c.

The China weights are in universal use here, the catty is regulated at twenty three Spanish dollars weight, but they have particular names for the subdivisions: 10 muhuks equal to 1 chuchuk, equal to 1 candareen; 10 chuchuks, equal to 1 amas equal to 1 mace; 10 amas, equal to 1 tael; 16 taels equal to 1 catty; 5 catties equal to 1 bubut, 10 bubuts, equal to 1 laxa, equal to 50 catties; 2 laxa equal to 1 picul.

Half a cocoanut shell is one panchang; 8 panchangs 1 gantong equal to 4 catties; 10 gantongs 1 raga; 2½ ragas 1 picul of 133⅓ lb. avordupois; 1 cabban (Manilla measure for paddi) 1 picul.

Cloth is measured by the extended arms, which is one English fathom; the length of the arm from the elbow to the end of the middle finger one covid: and the breadth of the finger one inch, though the China covid is known here.

Spanish dollars are in great estimation here by the Chinese junks, who buy them up with laxa or brass money. The Sulos too in their intercourse with Europeans, regulate the prices of merchandize by Spanish dollars, yet it can scarce be considered the general currency among them.

The China pittis or brass laxa, is what is in most common use for small purchases, and fluctuates like other articles of merchandize; however, in computation they say 4 sanampuries are equal to one kangan 6 fathoms long; 4 do equal to 1 kowsong 4 fathoms long; 1 kampow equal to 1 Spanish dollar; 450 to 500 kusin or China brass coin 1 Sp. dr.

The island people make use of paddi in small payments, which fluctuates in value, according to seasons of plenty and scarcity.

The kampow, kangan, and kowsong, are China coarse nankeens white and brown, and their value in the market is always at the above par, being an article in universal wear among all classes of people. Upon rupees of all descriptions there is a great loss, viz. 1 Calcutta or Arcot rupee, 150 kusin; 1 Java rupee, 180 do.

We made use of west baftas and Birmingham cutlery for the purchase of our bazar, viz. one bafta, 1200 kusin; one razor, flowered blade, 400 kusin; one knife, scissors, or file, 200 kusin.

The Chinese junks always arrive here from the middle of March to the middle of April at farthest, always one, sometimes five, from three to seven thousand piculs burthen; the large ones generally meet with good markets and they always try to leave it by the 1st of August; those that neglect this precaution often lose their seasons and are frequently wrecked; some have been known to have wintered in the Spanish ports and ultimately compelled to sell their junks and cargoes. The junk trade to the Spanish outports, being always prohibited, Sulo lost this beneficial commerce, until revived by Mr. Dalrymple's holding out protection and encouragement to the junks at Manilla in 1763.

They generally come from the ports of Amoy and Pactow, where only the goods fit for the Sulo market are to be met with at first hand; the prices at Canton being too high to render it profitable.

There are no fixed duties levied upon them, but they pay according to the rated amount of the investment, agreeable to the contract made by their commanders and supercargoes with the sultan in the Rumah Bechara. In 1814 one junk paid seventy-five hundred Spanish dollars, the other five thousand. They also contract with one of the datus for a new mast, and hire a factory for the season; another weighty tax upon them is the being obliged to give the sultan and datus credit during their stay, from three hundred to five hundred dollars each; some pay, some do not, and always in goods at twice their value. The rest of their cargo they partly distribute out to the resident Chinese, to be paid in produce at a fixed value, and a part they keep to retail out from day to day for the prow produce as it comes in. Like other traders, they are subject to great extortions, without the means of redress, yet still find it their interest to continue this traffic, and it is said if one junk out of three arrives safe, nothing is lost. They are never freighted or loaded by the same person, but always by a great number of speculators. Of the two large Chinese junks in 1814, one was estimated at 7000 piculs burthen and had goods to the value of 100,000 dollars prime cost, the other of the same size at 50,000.

The export cargoes of the junks consisted of tepoy (pearl shell,) cut betel nut, tripang, wax, seaweed, white and black birds' nests, camphor barus, tortoise shell, pearls, ebony, sapan wood, clove bark, (sassafras,) cassia, cowries, pepper, sago. I cannot give a particular account of the export cargo of each junk, that which was in my possession having been destroyed.

I shall state the annual consumption of Sulo and its dependencies of European and Indian articles at the Sulo price, or agreeable to the prices fixed by the Spaniards.

6 Chests of Benares opium.
50 Corges of blue Madras salampores, 6 kaul.
50 Corges do. do. do. 8 kaul.
100 Do. blue gurras, good.
200 Do. white baftas, or gurras, middling.
200 Do bleached 8 kaul salampores.
500 Pieces of fine cassas.
500 Pieces muslins, and doreas, flowered, striped, plain, sprigged, &c.

10 Do. blue moories fine, 18 to 20 kauls.
10 Do. white do. 20 kaul.
10 Do. blue succatoons fine.
200 Corges of Patna coarse chintz.
50 Do. Trimularampatham chintz, (kalamcarries.)
100 Do. Cuddalore coarse chintz, red grounds.
N. B. All chintzes the larger the flowers the better, and red grounds.
50 Corges Pulicat fine red handkerchiefs, large squares or checks, no white squares at the corners; with seven white stripes round the borders.
50 Corges Madras handkerchiefs; French, American, and Spanish patterns, as little white as possible and the more showy and gaudy the better.
100 Do. red Ventepollam handkerchiefs, fine and coarse from ten to 26 punjums.
10 Do. red Madras camboys, Spanish patterns.
10 Do. red Madras tanjams (imitation Bugis cloths.)
20 D. Madras fine chintz; red ground, large flowers.
50 Do. Cuddalore small palampores.
50 Do. do. large do.
50 Pieces of fine Madras long cloth 38 punjums, or 19 kaul.
2 Corges of chindai, of all sizes and patterns, (pattohs,) 200 per cent profit.
5 Corges of Madras fine palampores; large flowers, a few pieces of blue, and also white Madras cambrics.
100 Pieces of Java fine handkerchiefs of patterns.
20 Do. of embossed long ells of sorts.
20 Do. of broad ells aurora.
20 Do. of broadcloth do.
6 Do. of double colors scarlet, &c.
500 Pieces Europe chintz, large flowers, red ground, and of showy patterns.
200 Piculs of Swedish flat iron.
10 Do. steel in tubs.
100 Do. large spike nails for prow building.
2 Chests Malay cutlery, showy.
1 Box of files of sorts, and sizes, a few small grapnels of 1 cwt. each.
Carpenter's tools, saffron, gambier, curry stuffs, a few leaguers of arrack, liquors, looking glasses, and a tawdry French watch or two; sometimes muskets, flints, shot, powder, saltpetre, &c. will sell; but these are dangerous articles of traffic and ought to be discouraged.

A present of kincob, flowered satin, cut glass ware, or some finery is requisite, to make to the sultan and smaller presents to his relations and a leading datu or two.

Traders to succeed in the Sulo trade, must arrive there, in a vessel of about five thousand piculs, in March, and must remain there at least six months or about fifteen or twenty days before, and as many after the departure of the China junks; a convenient factory must be rented, the price from three hundred to five hundred dollars for the season, but that must be agreed for beforehand; the vessel should be a fast sailer to effect her passage to China, and well armed, a force being required on shore. No credit ought to be given and this point fully arranged in the Rumah Bechara; the duties to be levied not to exceed five per-cent, to have only a small quantity of goods on shore at once, and the returns sent off every evening; large purchases of produce though received on shore, to be paid for from the ship, a good look-out kept, and no visitors allowed on board. The friendship and protection of one or two leading chiefs is necessary, and to be indirectly purchased by making them small presents, from time to time, such as Datu Sakilan, Milbehar and Laximana, and also giving the datus a little more for their produce than what you give the common people. A Chinese

sorter and a few China and Bugis coolies are positively necessary to choose and pack the tripang and produce; for it is death to any settler or native to give you any information on this head; China coolies are procurable for making baskets (and other rough work) for the pearl shell, tripang, black birds' nest, and tortoise shell; the white birds' nest and camphor must be packed in chests; too much care and precaution in packing your produce cannot be used, to get your cargo sound to China.

The total amount of goods exported from Sulo in 1814 up to the 26th August were as follows, viz. one thousand piculs of wax, five thousand do mother o'pearl shell, three thousand do. of tripang of sorts, two thousand do cut betel nut, five hundred do. of black birds' nest, (this takes up much room) thirty do. of white, thirty do. of good camphor. Pearls about twenty-five thousand dollars; besides shark fins, cowries, agar-agar, ebony, amber, rattans, &c Considerable quantities of goods still remained at Sulo and many trading prows had not arrived. After the departure of the junks and trading vessels in August, the fair is in a manner broken up, the remaining produce is sent to Ho-Ho on Ponay, or retained on hand for the next season; the datus lying upon their oars until the next season, and the people going in search of produce to the ports on Borneo and the islands.

Formerly ships hove down here, and traders were treated with liberality and respect, but since the reign of the present sultan, force is in a great measure the rule of right, and too many precautions cannot be well taken.

The Sulos and resident Chinese are so acute in adulterating goods, that great precaution is necessary in making your purchases. The birds' nests, both black and white, should be invariably purchased loose and dry; those that are tied up, have dirt, fish, lead, and small pieces packed up in them to increase their weight; and the least damp turns this article red, and spoils it. Great care is required in packing this article from damp, and to prevent its breaking, which lowers its price in China; that which is white, large, thin, and without feet at the edges, is best.

The camphor, they adulterate with rice and a soft crystal found at Sulo, much resembling camphor barus; when taken in the hand it should leave no dust behind, and suspicious pieces, sparking bright, should be tried by a candle; if it burns it is camphor. The larger the pieces the better, and that sort with dust should be washed white and clear of impurities.

They mix the tripang, white and black, old and damaged, and bring it wet to increase the weight; care must be taken to separate them, to reject the rotten which breaks and appears rotten, while the good is tough and pliant; if wet, a lower price should be given, and it should be spread out to dry This article must be packed with the greatest care, as it is very perishable; the least wet ruins it instantly; and if there is one rotten one put in the basket, it spoils all the rest; with the utmost care in the packing it can only be preserved four months without repeated airings in the sun; when slightly damaged, it must be boiled over again and dried in the sun.

In tortoise shell, the thicker, the whiter, and the weightier the bundle, the more esteemed in China; the thin flexible pieces should be rejected.

In the pearl shells, the dead ones are of a heavy white opaque color, and should be rejected and cleared of the mud and dirt before weighing. There is a great wastage in this article, and it should not be moved often. It takes up much room, and is but indifferent ballast.

The pearls are from one kampow to fifteen the carat weight, or rather the chuchuk, by the China ivory scales, agreeable to the size, roundness, smoothness, whiteness, and brilliancy; a small flaw is a great deduction from the value.

It is customary and prudent to settle the price of your goods before the sultan, and to procure your scales from the datu Mulok, to prevent serious disputes; for the use of the latter, you pay him the usual fee of forty dollars. Make a point of never altering your own prices, and fixing the value of theirs according to the price paid by the China junks, which you may ascertain by your China sorter. Upon this price you may give twenty-five per cent. additional; otherwise you will have eternal bickerings and disputes.

Some English vessels not wishing to remain for the season, open a shop in the Sultan's palace from twelve till sunset: the prices are fixed on both sides, but by this method, it is impossible to sell much. The cargoes are so slender and come in so slowly and the traders requiring a mixture of China and Indian goods, that a cargo cannot be sold by this method; besides all the small traders dislike selling in the palace; so that when the datus get supplied the traders drop off.

The other commercial articles, which are sometimes met with at Sulo, are as follows: gold extremely fine and in large quantities is procured from the Sulo possessions on Borneo and were the trade any where regular, might become an article of importance; at present, it finds its way to Java, Macassar, Pinang, &c. Sago of a very superior quality and in considerable quantities, and canes and rattans to any extent might be collected from Borneo. Pepper was formerly cultivated not only on Sulo but on various parts of their dependencies on Borneo; this branch of their industry is totally neglected from the want of vend. The capas or cotton is abundant on all parts of Borneo; it is of a superior quality and considerable quantities might in time be obtained, at a moderate price.

Sapanwood, kayu laka, ebony, cassia, and cinnamon, with various dye-woods might be procured to any extent if required, while sugar, coffee, ginger, turmeric, indigo, saltpetre, succeed here extremely well, but cannot at the present moment come under the head of articles for exportation. Ambergris is generally procurable here, and might be encreased if looked after. Dammer, earth oil, kema shells may be had in any quantities, and three or four thousand piculs of *cowries*, could be annually procured at two dollars the picul, if contracted for six months before. *Lac* is sometimes offered for sale, as also *civet*, *bezoar*, and it is said *sandal* wood. The Manilla *rope* and *gamutty* are abundant, and lastly large quantities of *coolit lawang* or clove bark from the Bornean shore; this is a species of the sassafras tree, though differing from the laurus sassafras of America; it is of a greyish cast and the bark on the tree is smooth; when peeled off, it becomes rough and shrivelled, of a deep red within; that from the bottom of the tree has a strong clove-like smell and taste; an essential oil is extracted from it of a very excellent and penetrating quality, similar to the oil of cloves, called the *miniak coolit lawang*. The Dutch at Amboyna prohibited individuals from expressing it under a penalty of five hundred rix dollars.

Of the population in the interior, the Cafrees or Papuans hold the mandates of the sultan and Ruma Bechara in the highest respect, and pay some trifling tribute; they were formerly brutal and ferocious to the last degree, and the Biayans or orang Solok decapitated them whenever they could; but since their conversion to Islamism this barbarous practice has ceased and the Papuans also have lost much of their ferocity. I never saw one of them at Sulo or Soog; they exchange the products of their hills with their neighbours for such articles, as they most require. There are said to be a race of cafirs or unconverted Dayaks in the interior, who differ no wise from the Biaju of Benjar; they are tattooed like that tribe. I never, however, saw one of them.

There are likewise said to be numerous runaway slaves professing the Christian religion in the interior, who were originally kidnapped by the pirate prows of Magindanao and subsequently purchased by the datus, but holding the faith of their masters in abhorrence and panting for liberty, have sought it in the interior, where the sultan and chiefs have no power or control.

The Sulos assert that the majority of the people in the interior are moslems; the Spaniards say on the other hand that they are chiefly Christians; I rather conceive the former to be the fact. However this may be, the people of the interior (Papuans excepted) are at open war with the Sultan and town's people, who have grounds of serious complaint against them—the towns' people being in the constant practice of plundering their cattle and effects, and massacreing those that oppose their predatory pursuits. During my residence at Sulo (six months) they twice besieged the Sultan's fort and inflicted retributory vengeance on all those they could lay their hands on; should the people of the capital be ever attacked, they have no hopes of any cordial co-operation or support from the majority of the interior.

The Chinese residing at Soog, are generally of the poorest class that work their passage to Sulo in the annual junks and are for the most part given to traffic. They keep shops

in the town, some in the trading prows, others carry on the pearl and tripang fisheries or bird's nesting, but directly they scrape together a small competency they return to their native shores. They are under the command of three China captains, who have a seat in the Ruma Bechara, but I believe no vote. They complain bitterly of the tyranny, oppression and exactions of the datus, and would consider any change as operating an improvement of their condition; their want of enterprize and characteristic cowardice would prevent any active co-operation in the event of an attack against the government; but they would subsequently become useful and industrious subjects.

The principal force of the sultan and datus consists of their personal slaves (humbas,) Christians purchased from the pirate prows; these constitute the bulk of the population of the capital; but seldom become thoroughly reconciled to the change in their condition, from freedom and friends to foreign slavery. Annually, hundreds of them effect their escape to the Philippines or into the interior; no very cordial support therefore could be looked for by their Mahomedan masters, from these their main strength. I am convinced, one Spanish padri in his sacerdotals holding up a crucifix, would whistle them over like a huntsman his pack. And if a reconciliation does not speedily take place between the two rival sultans, one half of the island may be said to be in a state of hostility with the other. Under such a state of things, a force of two hundred Europeans and a cruizer would have turned the scale in favor of the invader and retained it against every effort, but that of *treachery*.

The most industrious and useful race of men about Sulo and the circumadjacent islands, are the Bajows or orang laut: to these men Sulo is principally indebted for her submarine wealth. They are hereabouts, stationary at their different islands; those at Macassar are itinerant. Capt. Carteret mentions having seen a hundred sail of them from twelve to twenty tons burthen at Bonthian under Dutch colors; Capt. Forrest, in the straits of Macassar saw a large fleet of Bajows from five to six tons burthen each, with women and children on board pursuing the tripang fishery.

Some authors have supposed this race of men, as originally from Johore, others from China or Japan, and I formerly conjectured they were Buguese, from their considering Macassar as their home; but on making very particular enquiries upon the subject, I was informed they are really the orang Solok of the east of *Subanos* and *Lutas* and called *Bajow*, signifying in their language fishermen. They speak the same language as the Sulos, and are mahomedans. The oppressions practised on them by the datus in forcing them to labor for their benefit, and the prohibition of the junk trade at Magindanao and many years at Sulo, by which they were prevented from selling their produce, compelled them to resort to Macassar and to make that the centre of their annual operations.

The other race frequenting and inhabiting the Sulo islands, are called Lanuns, or a race of men living solely by piracy from the provinces of Illana and Lanow, situated on Magindanao to the northward of Bongo Bay; their roving depredations are directed in large fleets of small prows in the straits of Macassar, among the Moluccas, but more particularly in the southern parts of the Philippines; the whole produce is sold at Sulo, which is the grand entrepot. Those that are settled at and living under the government of Sulo, I shall specify under the head of piratical establishments.

There are two wooden forts at Sulo, and one stockade; the former are about thirty feet in height of a quadrangular form; the walls consist of two rows of piles, with their interstices filled up with coral rocks (kurkulla stones:) one of them is situated on the west side of the other river, having five guns mounted on its ramparts; the other, the palace fort, stands on the east side of the river and of a similar construction, with small gateways on the west and east sides; this has nine guns mounted and embrasures for about twenty additional. The stockade is about one third of a mile east of the town but without any guns. They are in possession of fifty large guns of different calibres (plundered from Balambangan,) one of thirty-two, the remainder either twenty-four, eighteen, twelve, or nine pounders, the whole indifferently mounted or without carriages strewed about in all directions. The datus have also cannon concealed in their houses; Datu Sakilan, the king's younger brother, has mounted in the front of his house within the palace fort six brass three-pounders: Datu Johor on shore on the west side of the river, four iron three-pounders; Tuan Laximana (of Buguese extrac-

tion) three-brass four and six-pounders; Datu Milbehar, east of the palace fort, seven brass three pounders, and Datu Mulut, seven iron six-pounders. Before the Sultan's palace, are nine iron and eight brass twelve-pounders; all these guns have the honorable East India Company's mark on them; some were plundered in the massacre of 1775, the others in 1804 at Balambangan.

The piratical establishments under Sulo are as follows: *First*—In the town of Sulo or Soog (the capital) in the campong Subyon, there are six hundred Illana pirates, under Datu Mookbilul, formerly of the island of Burhalla, and Datu Bukon from Magindanao with about twenty large prows exclusively employed in predatory pursuits. *Second*—At Bohol on the east end of Sulo, there are fifteen hundred Lanuns under the command of Raja Muda Buling, with about thirty prows expressly employed as rovers. *Third*—On Pulo Toolyan between Sulo or Soog, and Bohol, there are three hundred Lanuns. *Fourth*—On Pulo Tonko, up a small but deep river fortified with ten guns, under Datu Timbing, five hundred Lanuns and ten prows. *Fifth*—On the Island of Palas, (near Samboangan) there are three hundred pirates and ten prows protected by a small fort mounting two or three guns. *Sixth*—On Pulo Tawi Tawi, there are three hundred Lanuns. *Seventh*—On Similout, there are seven hundred pirates *Eight*—On Pantutaran, are three hundred ditto. *Ninth.*—On Palwan, at a town called Babuyon, on a large river fortified with twenty guns, are six hundred pirates and twenty large prows. *Tenth*—On Pandasan, a hundred pirates. *Eleventh*—On Basilan, three hundred; At the port of Maloza on this island, they cut off the watering party in H. M. S. *Fox's* launch, in all twenty-five Europeans; they sent a number of women down with arrack and fruit for sale, and whilst the sailors were fondling and caressing them, overpowered with liquor, they were surrounded and made prisoners. *Twelfth*—At the port of Tantoli, on the Celebes, there is likewise a great piratical establishment, governed by Sultan Mahomed Kubu; the town is fortified with three hundred guns and three thousand Illana pirates and fifty or sixty prows. This with the piratical establishments on the island of Magindanao, are intimately connected with the Sulo government, sharing their spoils, disposing of their booty, refitting and obtaining their supplies from the Sulo datus, whilst the others, from one to eleven, are actual dependencies of the Sulo government.

The share of the booty reverting to the Sultan and Ruma Bechara is twenty-five per cent on all captures. They must respect the Sulo flag and pass and commit no depredations on vessels actually at an anchor in Soog roadsted. The Datus advance guns and powder, for which they are to be paid a stipulated number of slaves.

Sulo is not only the great commercial mart of all the surrounding ports on Magindanao and the Celebes, but the capital of a great portion of Borneo and all the contiguous islands. It is the nucleus of all the piratical hordes in these seas, the heart's blood that nourishes the whole and sets in motion its most distant members; so that if the extirpation of piracy should be considered a desideratum by the British government, the blow must be struck here, the subordinate establishments burnt, and the Lanuns dispersed; then the great mercantile advantages to be derived by the commercial interests in India, will be sensible of the real value of these productive tracts and the advantageous trade to be derived from them. Commodore Hayes in 1801 or 1802 (vide Asiatic Register) fell in with a fleet of four hundred sail of these Illana pirates among the Moluccas and succeded in capturing or destroying a prodigious number of them.

The depredations committed by these pirates during the six months we remained at Sulo, (as far as came to our knowledge) were as follows, viz. One Spanish brig from Manilla, laden with sundries; twenty smaller craft, captured among the Philippines; one thousand slaves kidnapped from the Spanish islands and sold at Sulo; one large paddiwakan from Macassar with sundries; the Dutch commander ransomed by Capt. Peters of the Pinang brig *Thainstone*, for twelve hundred Spanish dollars. Five or six smaller craft under English colors captured among the Moluccas. The boat's crew of a brig under English colors, (name unknown) supposed to belong to Mr. Lackersteen of Bengal, consisting of one European and six lascars, were seized twelve miles of Sulo town as they were filling water and the whole of them murdered. By the exertions of Sultan Adanang of Parang, I recovered the jolly-boat, two cutlasses, two water-barrels, and a small English jack, which were made over to

the Honorable Company's gun-boat no. 7. There were doubtless many other depredations, but which did not come to our knowledge, as not a day passes without the arrival or departure of a least twelve to fifteen pirate prows.

The small pox commits as many ravages here as in any part of the world for the extent of its population. It is held in the greatest fear and dread, and whenever it breaks out the doors and windows of the house are ordered to be closed up, no person allowed to go in or its inhabitants to communicate with the other inhabitants; if it rages extensively all business is at a stand and the people fly to the other islands. One half of the whole that get the infection die with it; inoculation or vaccination is totally unknown to them and its effects are aggravated by improper treatment. Almost all the inhabitants are afflicted with cutaneous eruptions; the kurap or ringworm is almost an universal disease, and almost one man in twenty is afflicted with leprosy; some of them in a horrible degree. It is no uncommon sight to see them peeling off the scales, rolling up the dead flesh and pelting it off like bullets; it is not supposed catching, as they mix in society; it however wastes them away by degrees and is supposed to be incurable; some attribute it to a poisonous fish which the natives eat, others to sleeping and walking upon their neebong floors. The intermittent fever and the flux and dysentry at some seasons of the year are prevalent, but not considered dangerous. The lues is a disorder I never heard of here; although many complain of what I conceived to be ghonorea. The rich apply to the Chinese doctors for assistance, the poor, like the Malays, have recourse to approved recipes from time immemorial, treasured up by each family, consisting of vegetable simples. These are the only disorders that have fallen under my observation. As the air and water are good and wholesome, the scite of their habitations elevated and dry, clear of jungle for the most part, Sulo in every other respect must be reckoned a most salubrious spot. Much of their present disease arises from filth, from deleterious food and excessive addiction to the fumes of opium.

From the great fertility, the extended population, the valuable commercial products of this delightful island and its valuable possession on Borneo, the Spaniards since their first settlement at the Philippines, have always cast a longing eye over these possessions; from the year 1568 until the 14th of April 1664, they made repeated attempts to settle all the Sulo islands as well as on the main of Borneo; but, in the latter year, a peace was concluded between the Sulos and Spaniards on the mediation of the Sultan of Magindanao, in which treaty the Spaniards declared them to be an independent nation, and withdrew from all their possessions on Sulo which they had conquered. The other powers having been alarmed at the encroachments of the Spaniards, particularly the Dutch, it was provided by the treaty of Munster, to restrain the navigation of the Spaniards to that of the Philippines and it was expressly stipulated by the contracting parties, "that the Spaniards should maintain their navigation in the manner it at present was, without being able to extend it further in the East Indies";—at this date they had no footing in the Sulo isles. In contravention to this treaty, during the last century, they made two attempts to settle, but were each time cut off, as has been before observed. On the capture of Manilla in 1762 and 3. Sulo and its possessions were fully ceded to the English East India Company. In 1773, on the establishment of Balambangan, still recollecting the recent capture of their capital by the English, they were much alarmed, to find them such close neighbors, and were determined either by the Sulos or by main force (in violation of every treaty,) to oust us before the infant settlement acquired a strength too great for their opposition. The recent establishment of Balambangan in 1803-4, however, has put the question at rest, and whatever may be their disinclination to it, our right to form an establishment cannot be disputed.

Notwithstanding the treaty of Munster, however, they always carried on a trade with Sulo until 1813, when Capt. Don Alonzo was murdered by a slave of the orang Kaya de Gadang, some of his crew made slaves, and the Spanish vessels oblized to cut and run for Manilla. In 1814, in consequence of this there was no trade between Manilla and Sulo, except by means of the Chinese.

I saw the governor of Manilla several times upon the subject of communication from the Java government to the governor of Samboangan; he expressed no surprise or dissatisfaction

at the English settling at Sulo; on the contrary he expressed his wish, had his funds been sufficient, to have co-operated with the English in the extirpation of piracy in those seas; the inhabitants having suffered terribly by their predatory pursuits, but it appeared very evident from some observations that fell from the secretary, the governor of Samboangan and several gentlemen at Manilla, that the English might do what they pleased at Sulo and its possessions, but that Magindanao was considered a part of the Philippines, and though restored to the sultan, it was under an express stipulation, that his majesty should not cede or permit the introduction of any Europeans without the express consent and license of the Spanish government.

The Sulo dominions on Borneo, as ceded to the English East India Company, extend from Kimanis 5½ north near Borneo proper, to Cape Kaniongan in the straits of Macassar. They are divided into four districts; viz. First, *Pappal*, which is the district adjacent to Borneo proper, extending from Kimanis aforesaid to Tanjong Simpanmanjio or Pirate's Point. This district though claimed by the Sulos, actually acknowledges the supremacy and government of the sultan of Borneo proper, for they pay no tribute, nor do they trade with the Sulos except at the pirate ports of Tampassook, Tawaran, &c. and I believe it never was properly subjected to their government. Having already described it in my report on Borneo, I have no farther particulars to communicate in this place. Second, *Maludu*, or Kini Balu, which includes the provinces of Paitan, and Labuk, and extends from cape Simpanmanjio to the west end of Sondakan harbour. Third, *Mangidora*, from the above limits west (Towson Duyon) to the river Tawao opposite to the island of Sibattuk. Fourth, *Tirun*, which extends from cape Kaniongan to the river Tawao beforementioned.

Maludu, is considered by the Sulos as the most fruitful, populous and valuable district on all Borneo; the bay is more than thirty miles deep, the eastern side of it is full of coral shoals, in other respects the chart by Barton in Dalrymple's collection, is tolerably correct, with the exception of a rock which Capt. Deane (H. C's. ship Malabar) informs me lies nearly midchannel, with only one fathom on it, and which in day-light may be perceived from the discoloured water upon it. There are two principal towns situated up the rivers, that fall into this bay; one called *Sungy besar* on the west side; the chief is Sherif Mahomed; it contains eight hundred islams, is situated a mile up the river, has a small stockade and acknowledges the authority of the Sulos. The other on the east side, called *Bankaka*, is under three Orang kayas, who nominally acknowledge the authority of the sultan of Borneo proper; it has seven hundred islams, and lies about eight hours pull up the river; on the east side of Bankaka, a large coral shoal extends out, which forms a sheltered roadstead for shipping; on the west side, there is a fine fishery of pearl oyster, called the Capis, the inhabitants however only go up to their middle in water, and pick up the oysters by hand; no dredges or divers are used.

There are many rivers of fresh water which fall into this bay and which have good soundings at their entrance; the land and sea breezes prevail pretty regularly and permit the easy egress of vessels in and out of the bay. On arriving at the anchorage, it is necessary to fire a gun; on which a fishing boat is sent out from *Sungy besar*, for no signs of habitations appear from the vessels. The other towns with a small population each are Bawongun, Tandik, Malasingin, Sipuni, Kudat, Tambalulan, Pangalian, Malubang; much pepper was formerly planted here.

The whole of this district abounds with excellent fattans from ten to twelve feet long, and two or three Indiamen of the largest size, might annually lade with them; the inhabitants will contract to cut them down for a trifle. Abundance of rice is grown inland: the English erected a stockade and established a grain magazine on one of the branches of Bankâka river for the supply of Balambangan. The orang Idan are very numerous in the interior of the country. There is much coolit lawang, or clove bark, and sassafras grows here, but the district is most remarkable for the fineness and quantity of its excellent camphor barus, superior to any in the world and preferred in Japan and China to the camphor of Sumatra. The whole of the islands and coast abound with turtle of the species so valuable for their shells (paykan,) and considerable quantities of wax may be collected. The orang Idan will give, I am told, one bamboo of their best camphor, for one bamboo of salt. In

1814, the imports from *Sungy besar* to Sulo were five piculs of first sort camphor, five do. of inferior, twenty-seven piculs best black birds' nests, two do. of white, fifteen do. of cotton wool, ten do. of wax, a considerable quantity of rice, rattans, and attaps and about twenty catties of capis pearls.

But what renders this part of Borneo so valuable, is the easy land-carriage of about forty five miles leading to the great lake of Kini Balu, which considerably exceeds in magnitude the great lake of Manilla: it is the source of many of the great rivers on Borneo, is five or six fathoms deep in some parts, interspersed with small islands. The water is of a whitish hue, but perfectly salubrious. On its banks are situated innumerable towns of orang Idan, employed in the cultivation of the soil, who are governed by a kaya or king of their own; but as I have already given a description of this district in my Bornean report, it will not be necessary here to repeat those particulars. It may however be here observed that the Dayaks would prefer bringing their produce to *Sungy besar* were a regular trade established there: at present they go all the way to Banjarmasin or at least to some of the great towns near it. There is also a good road from Bankaka to Sandacan. In the *Harrier* we obtained bullocks, fowls, river fish, turtle, and fruit, equal to our wants, at a moderate price from old Sherif Mahomed. On entering this bay, the gigantic mountain of Kini Balu majestically rearing its lofty head over the circumjacent Alpine scenery to a stupendous height, cannot fail to strike the observer with admiration and awe.

Paitan is a bay and river between Maludu and Sandacan, but its situation is by no means well ascertained; it is governed by orang kayas and subject to Sulo; it is remarkable for the vast abundance of the finest camphor in the world, plenty of lissang, and yields great quantities of clove bark, or coolit lawang, besides the above rattans, wax, rice, which are annually imported into Sulo; but the whole coast is so full of islets, reefs, and shoals, that no vessel ought to attempt it. The *Harrier* trying it in 1810, was wrecked forty miles due west of the peak of Kaygayan Sulo. In all the numerous islands adjacent to this coast, the paykan, or tortoiseshell species of turtle, abounds in the greatest possible quantities.

Soogoot is a considerable town situated on the river of the same name and acknowedges the government of Sulo; it is governed by orang kayas and its river take sits rise in the lake of Kini Balu: the products are precisely the same as those of Paitan, and six or eight large prows are constantly employed in bringing the produce to Sulo.

Labuk is a large bay not very well known, it has a number of coral banks, there is a town of the name Ano; somewhere here the Spaniards originally formed an establishment under the name of St. Anne's bay; it is governed by chiefs of its own, subject to the authority of Sulo; here are five hundred Islams and a hundred orang Idan; the produce as imported to Sulo in 1814 was fifteen piculs of cotton wool, ten do. of bees' wax, one thousand bundles of rattans, twenty catties of lime of the best sort, and some other trifles.

Sandacan is one of the finest harbors in the world or rather an assemblage of harbors with soundings and shelter for the whole navy of Great Britain, and has been surveyed by British vessels; vide Dalrymple's collection of plans. It is completely under the control of the Sulos, the present sultan during the lifetime of his royal father, was chief of the district. The river Sandacan or Sa Panchia is a small stream, not more than five fathoms broad, it disembogues itself into the harbor and the town is situated near the qualla or mouth. The chief is named Tuan Abundool, with a hundred Islams, & there are many orang Idan in the interior parts. There is a small mud fort mounting three large guns, five smaller of brass, thirty rantakas and sixty muskets. Its annual products, when the Sulo people come over in numbers, & chuse to exert themselves, are fifty piculs of white birds' nest, which cost them seven campows or dollars the catty, two hundred do. of black, of different qualities and prices, three piculs of camphor first sort at twenty campows the catty, three piculs of wax, capis pearls in abundance, five catties yearly if looked for, and fifty piculs of tripang of a particular small species. It is the practice of the industrious datus and chiefs to proceed to this place with all their slaves for the season; in which case, they are sure to make great profits; formerly the birds' nest-caves in this district were considered royalties, and the produce was immense; at present they are plundered ad libitum and the quantity decreases every year.

Towson Duyon is another small population hereabouts, under the command of a pangle-

ma: it has a nakile or fort of three guns, and is peopled with a hundred Bajow or fishermen, employed in catching and curing tripang; they obtain about fifty piculs annually; some paddi is produced here, but none for exportation; there are but few orang Idan near this.

Pulo Loobukon a small island near the above abounding with cocoanuts, but has no population or other commercial products.

Domandoung has a small river & a few fishermen. *Sigallewood* has a large river which prows can enter: there are here ten islams and eighty orang Idan, and the town is close to the river's mouth.

Loo Loo is a town situated on a small river; there are thirty or forty Bajow or fishermen employed in catching tripang; twenty or thirty piculs are cured here annually.

The island of *Bahilatolis* unites the harbours of Sandakan and Manunyong; on the interior side of the isle a ship may careen, there being eight to ten fathoms water close to the shore, with an excellent stream of fresh water falling into the sea over the cliffs; it yields a few catties of birds' nests annually, remarkably white, but they are not so much esteemed by the Chinese as those from the main.

The province of *Mangidora* forms the north eastern part of Borneo, extending itself towards the Sulo Archipelago in a long narrow point named Unsang, or cape Misfortune. The whole of this district yields very valuable articles for commerce and in considerable quantities, birds' nests, black and white in great abundance, camphor, elephants, cattle, dammer, wax, lackawood, rattans, and great quantities of the purest gold in lumps and dust of a very soft pliable texture like wax, &c.

The north coast of *Unsang* is indented with several bays, but none which afford shelter for shipping during the northerly monsoon; there are on this coast thirty large rivers from Tambesan to Sandakan, all of which with the exception of Moroak are branches of the Kenabatangan river, forming as it were, a delta to the main stream, which takes its rise from the great danow or lake in the vicinity of Kini Balu; the four most westerly branches are the most considerable, particularly that of Towson abai; the bar is shallow, but within, it has depth enough for the largest ships; the Sulos say it is capable of being turned into the harbour of Manunyong, which would remove the obstacles of the bar and render it one of the finest rivers on Borneo.

Keni batangan is so called from keni the usual name for a Chinese, and batangan a river in the Idan language; an extensive colony from that nation having been formerly established on its banks. The town so called, is seven days pull up against a rapid stream and it takes three days to turn. It is defended by a fort constructed with piles of wood three fathoms thick, the interstices being filled with mud, and mounts twenty-four large guns, twenty of which are of brass. The chief in command is appointed by the Sulos, he is named Tuan Muda: the population of the town is thirty islams and a hundred orang Idan, but higher up the river, there are many large negris of orang Idan and population encreases the further you proceed up. Birds' nests in a good season, thirty piculs of white and a hundred of black, a little wax, much rattans small and large, gold plentiful if searched after; at present the Idan procure no more than ten catties annually; considerable quantities of paddi are raised by the Idan. There are many elephants and rhinoceroses. About thirty prows trade here from Sulo every season.

The whole of the eastern parts of cape Unsang abound with wild elephants which are not found in any other provinces of Borneo, though originally imported from Benjarmassing, with extensive herds of wild cattle which have greatly multiplied from a breed left here by the Spaniards who removed from the port of Borneo in 1646.

Tambesan is a small island, forming a harbour with the main, somewhat similar to Pulo Pinang, on the north east Cape of Unsang, & is capable of receiving ships of the largest size, sheltered from every wind. The main yields abundance of the finest timber, particularly the Alexandrian laurel, many of which are said to be from two to three fathoms round; good water is to be had and the soil on both sides is fit for cultivation, but at present there are no inhabitants.

After this, towards Giong, are several rivers, but the account of them is lost, viz. Subait, Tancoo, Mabung, Babatu, the country here abounds with wild cattle. Salurang, Lingang,

and two others (names unknown) abound with shoals and have never been surveyed by a British vessel.

Giong river is situated on the north-west part of the bay of that name; there are considerable quantities of blackish birds' nests here procurable. *Pulo Giya*, off this coast, abounds with deer, & *Seperan* with abundance of green turtle. There is also a species of birds' nests like driven snow found on Pulo Giya and much tripang is collected about the bay. *Gunong Madai*, near Giong, has a birds' nest cave and a remarkable high mountain called *Bud Selam*.

The southernmost point forming Giong bay, is called *Timbun mata*, (near Sabahan;) here is a very large river, & ships of considerable burthen may enter; there are extensive forests of the finest teakwood, about one mile up from the qualla; there is excellent water here; wild hogs, and deer abound, and a fine country about it, but no inhabitants reside here. Inland, great numbers of orang Idan and a cultivated country are to be found.

Near this place, though not marked in any chart, is the grand port of the Sulos on Borneo called *Sabahan*, situated upon a small river of considerable length & it is five days pull up to the negri. The chief here is Datu Sapindin, a nephew to the present sultan of Sulo. There are here one thousand islams eight hundred orang Idan and cafirs; a fort of piles mounting forty-five large guns; white birds' nests of a superior quality to any in the east, thirty piculs at nine campows the catty, one hundred do. black of a superior kind at four hundred the picul, five do. of camphor barus first sort at twenty the catty, three piculs of wax, considerable quantities of capis pearl oyster procurable about the banks adjacent. Of the tripang about forty piculs is fished yearly; much paddi grows here, rattans, and herds of wild elephants. The Islams here, being for the most part Buguese, give this place more of a commercial turn than those before mentioned.

Tidong, though its situation is not marked in any of the English charts, is of considerable commercial consequence. It is governed by the Pangeran besar. The river is large, two fathoms on the bar at high water. Here is a small fort with seven or eight large guns under Sulo. No Buguese—Islams two thousand,—and an immense population of orang Idan in innumerable negris up to the very source of the river. The commercial products are wax, three hundred piculs, gold about one picul, two piculs of the finest camphor, fifty catties of superior white birds' nests, which fetches seventy-five dollars the catty in China and is expressly reserved for a *bonne bouche* for the Chinese emperor, one to two hundred piculs of black nest, much rattan, and abundance of paddi; some tortoise and tripang are collected here also.

Pilas is a considerable river; the country about it, overrun with wild cattle;—*Cupang* a town near it has thousands of beeves, and some horses.

The last river in Mangidora is *Tawi* of which I have retained no particular account. The whole of this province, it is said, produced much pepper; but from the slender demand for this article of late years, the culture is discontinued.

The last province on Borneo belonging to Sulo, is *Tirun*; the whole coast is, as the name implies, extremely low; the backs of the coast and rivers overrun with mangrove; the mountainous parts a great way inland, where reside the greatest population of the orang Idan. There are in this district innumerable rivers large and navigable, and it is considered a most valuable tract. The principal food of the islanders here abouts is chiefly sago; as it forms the principal subsistence of the inhabitants they cultivate it with the extremest care; the edible birds' nests here are of a superior quality and in vast abundance, gold is found in various parts; the other commercial products are wax, honey, rattans, canes, dammer, bezoar; tripang is collected along its coasts, the capis pearl oyster, and tortoises, &c.

Sibucu is the first river of any consequence, it is very deep inside of the bar, the current extremely rapid and constantly running down, there are shoals at the mouth. It has a small fort mounting six guns, one thousand islams, and numbers of the orang Idan. The produce: fifty piculs of white edible nests are annually collected for Macassar and Sulo, one hundred do. wax, canes, and rattans, the finest sago in India, honey, boorey mats. There are many Buguese in this district.

The next river of any consequence is *Sambacung*; it is a considerable stream, deep within, but has flats at its entrance, intersected by islands at its mouth covered with groves of neepa; a part of it is called *Tanna mera Sambacung* so called from the redness of the soil; it has a birds' nest cave which annually yields twenty piculs of birds' nest; the other products are the same as in other ports of this province. It is inhabited by Buguese and populous with orang Idan. After this comes the great and majestic stream called *Takkair* or *Leo* and *Leodong*, from the names of two towns so called situated on its banks; it produces much earth oil; inland it is very populous; and much paddi is raised by the orang Idan, which is generally exported, the inhabitants living upon sago: there are many Buguese here.

Sicatack or *Lalawang* is a fine bay into which the small river *Talangang* falls on the south side, and that of *Montabuling* on the north; it produces one hundred piculs of black nest and the other *Tirun* commodities. *Burongan* carries on a considerable trade with Sulo and is governed by a chief from that island; it formerly belonged to *Pasir*; it yields much gold of a superior quality with other *Tirun* produce.

The *Kuran or Barow* river is a most magnificent stream, it goes by both names from two towns so called on its banks. Barow is an independent state in alliance with Sulo. The other is subject to Sulo; the river has three fathoms at its mouth, but it is necessary to have a pilot to shew the channel; there is a considerable trade in cocoanuts carried on from *Tualli* on the Celebes to *Barow*, which they call *Borong*. *Kuran* is eight hours pull up from the bar with the tide; it has a wooden fort with thirty guns of different sizes; they acknowledge the government of Sulo; the chief is named Raja Allum; there are 3,000 Buguese, five hundred Malays, ten Chinese, and an immense number of orang Idan in a whole string of negris. Its produce is about twenty piculs black birds' nests; three piculs of white nest; three or four hundred piculs of wax; one thousand piculs of tripang; ten piculs of tortoise shells; some camphor but not much; cinnamon might be had in any quantity required; they grow abundance of paddi; from one to two piculs of gold is collected by the orang Idan, at ten campows for one tale weight; this gold is of the finest kind called mas tua; kema flesh is cured in large quantities, and the capis pearl oyster is found on the banks; kayu lakka & rattans, in ship-loads if required; ivory from four to five piculs annually, some of a large size; ten piculs of amber if looked after; there is also much cotton and the Buguese manufacture sarongs & handkerchiefs to some extent of a very durable quality. They require chiefly iron, opium a little, chalopan or salampores, blue baftas, Madras or Pulicat red handkerchiefs, kallamkari chintz, Sulo vegetable salt, Chinese campows, China ware, &c.

The rest of the rivers in this province are *Dumaring*, a considerable place, the small river *Simontai*, and *Tapeandurian* inhabited by a ferocious race of orang Idan, much tripang or baat is collected about this coast with the other *Tirun* articles. I cannot at present state any particulars respecting the population, &c.

There are two other ports on the coast of Borneo, whose situations I know not and perhaps the names are not very correct, viz. *Pinikund* or *Pinangar*, containing one thousand Islams, two hundred Idan, producing fifteen piculs of cotton wool, one hundred of beche de mer of sorts, six or eight piculs of white nest, twenty coyans of paddi and ten do. of rice. *Munkindra*, having two thousand islams, five hundred Idan, producing twenty piculs of cotton wool, fifteen do. of wax, three do. of white nest, ten do. of black, one thousand piculs of betel nut.

The islands belonging to Sulo are extremely numerous, as may be seen by Dalrymple's chart of these seas. They are divided into the following groups, viz. first Sulo isles, secondly Basilan isles, thirdly Tawi Tawi, and fourthly, the Palwan group or Felicia proper; many of the smaller isles are totally uninhabited with few or no productions, and most of them without affording fresh water: these I shall pass over as their names and situation may be seen by reference to the charts; of those of which I retain any particulars, I shall here subjoin them.

SULO ISLES.—*Bankangungow*, a high woody isle, rocky and barren, a few fishing huts on the south side.

Tubyan, a high island and was formerly thickly peopled and abounded with cattle, fruit-

trees, &c; it was destroyed by the Spaniards in their last expedition to Sulo; the shore is steep and the bay commodious and secure for a few ships; vessels of any size can careen here, the forests abound with excellent timber, particularly the Alexandrian laurel of the largest size, the poot and dammer trees; the island is indifferently supplied with fresh water. Indiamen in [illegible] have anchored here, and in 1814 the *Africaine*, Hon. Capt. Rodney, was here.

Kapul is [illegible] than the last, is inhabited, produces much paddi, abounds with deer and has plenty of the finest timber for ship building; it forms a harbour with the main and affords shelter for small craft.

Pata has many inhabitants as already described, it abounds with cattle; saltpetre is collected from three pits of extremely white earth yielding one eight of saltpetre; the Spaniards were once in possession of this island.

Patean, a high island on the east side towards Sulo, it has an elegant cove with deep water, completely land-locked and affords shelter for ships of the largest size, it affords also excellent wood and water.

Tapul is a high island well inhabited, abounds with fresh water, cultivated in every part to the summit of the hills, yields paddi and yams and was in the possession of the Spaniards.

Siasi is a high island covered with wood, it is well inhabited, supplied with abundance of fresh water, much baat or tripang, called siasi after the island; cowries can be collected here yearly to almost any extent. This once belonged to the Spaniards.

Pangutaran—this island is ten miles in length and is an entire bed of coral rock, with a light soil upon its surface and that so scanty that the dead are obliged to be sent to the contiguous islands to be buried; it however abounds with fine timber trees and grass, and the finest cocoanuts, which is of infinite benefit to the inhabitants as the water here is of a very brackish quality. This island was formerly settled by Spaniards, who have left a large breed of cattle, hogs and goats on it; there are no harbors and scarcely any anchorage near it, the shore being steep. The chief town is called Maglocah, situated on the east side; it is under the government of Orang Kaya Mallik who resides at Sulo; here are nine hundred Islams. It yields seventy piculs of black birds' nests, thirty do. of beche de mer white and black, twenty do. of cotton wool, ten do. of wax; there is also a small village called *Bayt Bayt*: there are many Illana pirates here and most of the Islams are the humba or slaves of Orang Kaya Mallik.

Ubean or *Uby* is the largest of the isles near Pangutaran; it is said to have several creeks through it, has five hundred Islams, and yields forty piculs of agar-agar, ten do. black birds nests, and three of white.

Pandukan is a low and woody island, it is inhabited, and has anchorage off the south point; the Bajows here are chiefly employed in the tripang fishery.

Tubigan is a small woody island and is remarkable only for being the sole island that yields fresh water from Sulo to Pangutaran.

Babuan has a few Bajows employed in the fisheries.

Marungas is high and rocky and has some fruit trees on it; it yields no fresh water, which is taken over in boats from Sulo; here are yams and garden stuff planted in the rainy season; salt is also manufactured here.

Schokon Bolod has a salt manufactory and a few people residing upon it; here are also yams, &c.

Tugbahas is a cluster of low islands with a few Bajows employed in collecting baat or sea slug.

Sama Laut isles are inhabited by a considerable number of Bajow people, who collect the produce of the adjacent seas; considerable quantities of tepoys and pearls are brought from hence to the Sulo market: there are plenty of cowries here, tortoise shell, and some tripang; most of these isles are destitute of water; here is a considerable establishment of Illana pirates or Lanuns.

BASILAN is the largest island in the vicinity of Sulo; in the centre it is hilly, the sea coasts are low and woody; it forms a narrow strait with the coast of Samboangan; formerly it was considered the garden that supplied the Spanish garrison with fruits and vegetables.

but it has lost much of its former importance and population from the state of warfare between the Sulos and Spaniards. The principal port is *Maloza* on the south west side, where ships occasionally touch for fresh water, and *Gubawang* on the north east coast. It has a very pleasing appearance from the sea and has in former ages been of more importance than what it now displays; its soil however supplies the Sulo market with considerable quantities of paddi; there are fifteen hundred Islams on the island subject to [illegible]. The produce is twenty piculs of black birds' nests, three hundred of kulit tepoy, a few [illegible]s, some tortoise shell and twenty or thirty prows of paddi which constitute its annual export to Sulo; cowries are extremely abundant and might be collected in large quantities, and there is said to be some gold here. The tides round Basilan are extremely rapid particularly during the springs. The pirates or Lanuns frequent the creeks and rivers round this island.

Pilas is next in size, it is tolerably high, has a good harbor on the south side; there is no good water to be found on the island; it has a small fort mounting two or three guns with three hundred pirates and ten prows.

The *Sangboys* or *Slaves' Ears* are two high islands overrun with wood and are said to have plenty of fresh water, though there are no inhabitants residing upon them. The tepoy hereabouts is of a remarkably large size. There are also pearls of a large size and extremely valuable, but from want of Bajows, the depth of water and innumerable sharks and sea monsters, the fishery is not carried to that extent its importance would warrant: there are some dangerous coral reefs hereabouts, on which the ship Griffin was wrecked in 1762.

Dassam is low and woody, some of the timbers growing here are of very large dimensions; ebony is to be had here in abundance as well as in all the neighbouring islands; here are also abundance of cowries and the keman or gigantic cockle.

Tawi Tawi is the third in size of the islands forming the Sulo range; inland there are some considerable hills; and in the interior there are two lakes, one named *Lanun Tungang* with an island in the centre, which is the retreat of a number of fugitive slaves from the Sulo datus; the other called lake *Dungan* was formerly the residence of Sultan Badarudin and may be yet deemed the capital; two rivers fall into this lake and the coast between them is a steep rocky cliff; this lake is fresh at low water and has eight fathoms, the river leading from it to the sea has five, six, and seven fathoms, but on the bar, which is of black sand only, one and three fourths at low water and about four in the heigth of the springs. This place has been pointed out as a capital harbor and round the lake a site for an extensive settlement; the island is however but thinly inhabited for its size and importance. The population of *Tawi Tawi* is eight hundred Islams, chiefly the slaves of Datu Mulut Mondorasa and Datu Adanan. It produces annually for the Sulo market three hundred piculs of kulit tepoy, forty do. of beche de mer white and black, ten do. of black birds' nests, two do. of white, and some very valuable pearls: here are also about three hundred Illana pirates under a Magindanao chief; it is supplied with grain from Sulo for the Bajows and fishermen; the other towns are *Bud Sepang*, *Bud Bas*, which are inland on the hills, *Becha Becha*, *Sibango*, *Towson*, *Mangulick*, and *Lubu*.

Tawson Dulang Dulang, adjacent to *Dungan*, has very many large pearl oysters; the chain of inlands on the south east of Tawi Tawi are all low isles, with an infinite number of shoals between them and it, through which the channels have six and eight fathoms, but are extremely intricate and so narrow that the Chinese junks in some places require to be pushed on with poles: the most valuable pearl fishery is in these straits, which are accessible at all seasons, and fish of every kind are amazingly plentiful and of large size.

Some of the innumerable small isles hereabouts have a few inhabitants and fresh water, others not;—I cannot describe them minutely but they are all Bajows or fishermen.

The *Tahaw bank*, upon which I have been, is nothing but a base of coral rocks with a layer of sand, extremely low and a few shrubs and trees growing upon it. The pearl fishery around is said to be a very valuable one. It has however no fresh water.

The north part of *Palwan* belongs to the Spaniards; their chief town is on the north east coast called *Tay tay* and is under the government of the Alcalda of *Antique* on the island of *Panay*, and was formerly considered of some importance, but the greatest part of this island is under the dominion of Sulo. The east side of this isle is tolerably well-peopled with

orang Idan ; on the west side, in the intricacies of the lofty mountains, reside the aborigines or *Papuans ;* these two classes are perpetually at war with each other, though the Spaniards at *Tay tay* have found them a timid inoffensive race and once employed them as soldiers. The want however of the most useful class of natives, the Bajows, prevents them from deriving the full advantage from the noble pearl banks that skirt its shores. The country is described as flat to the bottom of the hills, and no country abounds more in valuable productions ; it produces the finest canes in the world, cowries may be had in ship-loads, wax, tortoise, tripang, tenju or gum copal, of which forty or fifty picul may be had yearly. The principal town here is called *Babuyan,* situated on a large river, fortified with twenty guns, with a population of one thousand Islams ; there are here six hundred Lanuns and twenty pirate prows : in 1814 the imports from Palwan were ten koyans of rice, sixty do. of paddi, fifty piculs of tripang, three do. of tortoise, two do. of wax, and some other trifling articles; the other ports are *Ilina, Baibacan, Idravan, Aborlan, Pamanian, Ipolote,* &c.

Bangue, Balabac, and the other islands in this range I have described as far as I was able in my former reports, and I have no further materials to add respecting them ; generally speaking, they are very thinly inhabited, overrun with jungle and timber trees, and producing chiefly wax, tripang, and tortoise ; these isles too have a very different appearance from the cultivated tracts of Sulo, &c.

Kagayan Sulo, that lies midway between Sulo and Banguey, is moderately high, and has a very delightful appearance from the sea ; it is clear of jungle and appears to be in a state of cultivation, with herds of cattle ranging the hills. The town is on the south east side, commanded by a surif under the authority of the Sulos. There are hereabout three hundred Islams. It abounds with paddi, fruit, poultry, and refreshments, and produces about three piculs of white and ten of black edible nests from the two high rocks opposite the road-stead, besides tripang and tortoise collected in the neighbourhood. It is here that the *Harrier's* crew and myself were captured.

I.—ACCOUNT OF RUMBOWE, ONE OF THE STATES IN THE INTERIOR OF MALACCA.

By Lieut. J. T. NEWBOLD.

Rumbowe has generally been accounted by the Portuguese and Dutch governments at Malacca as the principal of the states in the interior; but their ideas, like our own, until of late years, of the relative situation of these states, both political and geographical, appear to have been very erroneous. At the present time, indeed, much interesting matter remains in obscurity, and must remain until the peninsula has been more thoroughly explored.

These notions of the superiority of *Rumbowe*, over the sister state arose probably from the circumstances of its proximity to, and early connexion with, *Naning;* and from that of its capital being the crowning place of the deputed sovereign from *Menangkabowe.*

Tradition ascribes its name to a large *Marabowe* tree, anciently growing near its western frontier, on one of the banks of the *Marabowe* stream, not far from its embouchement into the *Rumbowe* branch of the Lingie river.

There was a small hamlet here, when I visited the place in 1832, consisting of four or five Malay houses. The word *Marabowe* is supposed to have been corrupted into *Rumbowe.*

The area of *Rumbowe proper,* not including the dependencies, is said not to be quite so spacious as that of *Naning.* The nearest point of its frontier is distant about 25 miles N. W. from the town of Malacca.

Boundaries.—It is bounded towards the N. E. by *Sriminanti* and *Sungie Ujong;* towards the south, by part of *Naning* and *Johole;* to the west, by part of *Naning* and *Salengore,* and to the east, by part of *Sriminanti* and *Johole.*

The boundary marks with *Sriminanti* are the mountains of *Lepat Cajang,* and *Gunong tujoh;* with *Sungie Ujong. Bukit Augim,* part of the right branch of the *Lingie* river, and *Parentian tingih;* with *Naning*;* with *Johole* the hill of *Bukit Pabei;* and with *Salengore,* the *Lingie* river.

Rumbowe contains two divisions, viz. *Rumbowe Ulu* and *Rumbowe Ilir;* each under its four *Sukus,* who are all subject to the control of one *Panghulu.*

The *Lingie* river forms the channel of communication, by water, of *Rumbowe* with the straits of Malacca, into which it falls about eight miles to the eastward of *Cape Rachado.* This river is about 450 yards broad, and takes a north-by-easterly course into the interior, to the distance of about six miles, when it divides into two branches. The one to the left, called *Battang Pennar,* goes up to *Lingie,* and the *Sungie Ujong* tin mines, taking a N. W. by N. course; and the one to the right, called *Battang Penagie,* takes a N. E. by E. course, to *Bander,* in *Rumbowe.* It has its rise among the mountains of this state. The three principal posts of *Rumbowe* are situated on the banks of *Battang Penagie;* viz. *Sempang,* six miles from the mouth at the point of the river's bifurcation; *Padas,* on the right bank, five or six miles further up; and *Bander,* about eight miles beyond *Padas.*

The river, up to *Sempang,* is navigable for vessels of 125 tons, ranging from 3½ to 7

* See paper on Naning, page 246.

fathoms, high-water, and vessels of nine tons may pass up, without much difficulty, to *Padas*; and to *Lingie*, on the other branch.

In entering the mouth of the river care must be taken to avoid the eastern bank, in consequence of hidden rocks, which run off to sea. The channel near the western bank is deep and safe.

Regarding *Padas*, the following remarks are extracted from some notes taken during a trip up the river in 1833. Two or three miles in advance of *Ramoan China Kechil*, on the right bank of the river, on the summit of a small hill commanding it, is *Raja* ALI'S (*Iang de pertuan Besar*) stockaded house. The place is named *Padas*, from a small stream that flows into the river about a quarter of a mile nearer *Sempang*. The river, several hundred yards above and below *Padas*, had been partially blocked up by large trees felled completely across. In one place we passed through a formidable chevaux de frise of pointed stakes, bound together, and running from bank to bank.

On this part of the river the stockade bears most: it is most judiciously placed to annoy an enemy passing up with so many obstacles in his course. We contrived to get over them with considerable difficulty, although the trees had since been cut in two, and broken down. At high-water, they might however be readily passed. The river was blockaded in this fashion during the *Naning* disturbances, and the engineer on this occasion was no other than our friend in the boat, the *Laksamana* of *Rumbowe*. *Sempang*, as before stated, is situated at the point of the river's bifurcation. In 1833, it consisted only of two or three huts; in the foremost of which was a small battery, consisting of seven swivels, and an iron 3-pounder of sufficient range to command both branches of the river. It is the place selected by the *Rumbowe* chiefs to levy the duty on the tin passing down from *Sungie Ujong*.

At the close of 1833, and commencement of 1834, many fugitives settled here, in consequence of the disturbances at *Lingie*, together with a small colony from Sumatra, under a *Panglima* named *Kammer*. The place is now strongly stockaded by the *Iang de pertuan Muda* SAYD SABAN, by whom every encouragement is held out to settlers.

Population.—Rumbowe, including *Kroh* and *Tamping*, contains about 9,000 inhabitants. The principal places are *Bander*, *Sempang*, *Chembong*, *Kaling*, and *Battu Ampar*. *Chembong*, with its environs, is said to contain about 900 houses, and drives a petty trade in timber, dammer, and wax, which are bartered for opium, cloths, iron, utensils, and tobacco.

Chembong is the residence of the *Panghulu* of *Rumbowe*; *Bander*, *Padas*, and *Sempang* those of the *Iang de pertuans*.

Besides Malays are several aboriginal tribes inhabiting the steeps of the mountains, and the forests, who subsist principally by hunting. The natives give them the general appellation of *Orang Benua*, people of the soil or country.

They are subdivided into several tribes: among the most remarkable of which are the *Udai*, *Sakkye*, *Jakun*, and *Rayet Utan*. I have seen several specimens of the two last, but do not perceive any material dissimilarity between them, save that the latter, by enjoying freer intercourse with the Malays, have become more civilized; at least, as far as a shew of dress and ornaments is implicated.

They differ much from the descriptions given of the *Semang* in the interior of *Quedah*, and the thick-lipped, woolly-haired *Papuan*. Their features are of the Malay caste; their hair sometimes straight, like that of the generality of Asiatics, but more frequently curling; at the same time, very different from the frizzly locks of the African.

The stature is shorter, but they do not differ much in complexion from the Malay.

The Malays entertain a high estimation of the skill of those singular tribes in medicine, and the knowledge of the virtues of herbs, roots, plants, &c. investing their sages, *Puyongs*, even with supernatural powers, such as the *Tujoh Besawye*, &c.

These tribes are to be found over the whole of the interior of this part of the peninsula, particularly in *Ulu Colang*, *Sungie Ujong*, *Johole*, *Jompole*, *Jellabu*, *Ulu Muar*, and *Segamet*. They are skilled in the composition of the celebrated upas poison, with which they tip the points of their arrows. The *Sumpitan*, a long tube, through which the poisoned darts are blown, and a spear, are their favorite weapons. The cloth that encircles their loins is made from the fibrous bark of the *Terrap* tree.

The influence of their *Botins*, or chiefs, over the election of the *Panghulu* of *Sungie Ujong*, has been mentioned. In *Johole*, they exert a similar power. It may be also remarked here, that in *Rumbowe* there are two distinctions of the high Malayan tribe called *Bodoanda*, viz *Bodoanda Jakun*, and *Bodoanda Jawa*. The *Panghulus* of all these states must necessarily be of one of these two tribes.

Government.—*Rumbowe* was formerly under the immediate sway of its *Panghulu* and *Ampat Suku*; but of latter days, the *Iang de pertuan Muda* claims equal, if not superior power to the *Panghulu*.

The first chief who assumed the title of *Iang de pertuan Muda* of *Rumbowe* was *Raja* ASSIL, the son of the second *Menangkabowe* prince *Raja* ADIL; he was appointed by the then *Iang de pertuan besar* (his son in-law *Raja* ITAM,) with the concurrence of the *Panghulus* of the four states; and it is stated, had assigned to him, as a subsistence, two-sixths of the duty levied on the tin passing down the river from *Sungie Ujong*, (the duty was then 2 dollars per *bhar*,) and the revenues of the districts of *Kroh* and *Tampin*, near the foot of the mountain of that name.

In 1812, ASSIL was driven out of *Rumbowe*, as previously mentioned, by the *Panghulu* and *Sukus*, assisted by Raja ALI; and died in Naning in 1814 or 15. Raja ALI supplanted him; but, being elected as *Iang de pertuan besar* in 1832, was succeeded in the *Muda*-ship by his son in-law, the present chief, SAYAD SABAN.

This office being an innovation on ancient usage is, consequently, secretly disliked by the Malays, especially where its privileges are so ill-defined and unsettled; and one in which right would appear synonymous with might.

Another change within the last few years has taken place in the constitution of this state; instead of the council of the *Ampat Sukus*, it consists now of eight, or the *Suku Iang de-lapan*; who, with the *Panghulu*, now form a deliberative body, like the Archons of Athens, of nine.

The *Panghulu* is alternately elected from the two tribes, *Bodoanda Jakun* and *Bodoanda Jawa*. The following circumstances, according to tradition, led to this custom:

"When the king of *Johore* appointed nine *Panghulus* over the nine *Negris* in the interior of Malacca, the heads of the leading tribes in *Rumbowe*, viz those of the *Bodoanda Jakun* and *Jawa*, disputed regarding the superiority of their respective claims to the honor. His highness of Johore, after due deliberation, came to the decision that the selection of a *Panghulu* should not be made from one tribe exclusively, but that each should have the privilege alternately."

This judgment, we are assured, gave entire satisfaction, and at all events, seems to have been adhered to in subsequent elections.

It must not be omitted here to state, that the title of *Lelah Maharaja* was given by the king to the *Panghulus* of the tribe *Bodoanda Jakun*, and that of *Sedia Raja* to those of the *Bodoanda Jawa*; with the exception of this custom, the office of *Panghulu* is hereditary, agreeably to the law of *Perpati Sabatang* prevailing in *Menangkabowe*, and provided the heir be not insane or an imbecile. The present *Panghulu* is of the tribe *Bodoanda Jakun*, he succeeded his predecessor *Bahago*, of the tribe *Bodoanda Jawa*, in 1819.

Sukus.—Under the *Panghulu* are the eight *Sukus*, or heads of the tribes, into which the population of *Rumbowe* is divided; and who act as their representatives in councils of state, where like the former *Sukus* of *Naning* and *Sungie Ujong*, they possess considerable influence. Nothing of any public importance can be agreed on without their concurrence; and their unanimous vote on disputed points bears down that of the *Panghulu*. The *Iang de pertuan besar* and *Muda* always exert more or less influence over their councils. The signature of the *Sukus* is necessary to the ratification of any treaty, or other similar public document.

Formerly there were only four *Sukus* who had share in the councils, viz. those of *Rumbowe Ilir*; but latterly those of *Rumbowe Ulu* have been admitted, as alluded to above. This change was effected by the policy of the two *Iang de pertuans*, in order to lessen the influence of the *Panghulu* and former *Sukus*, and to increase their own.

The names of the tribes and titles of the individuals who represent them are as follows:

Rumbowe Ilir.	
Tribes.	*Heads of tribes.*
Battu Ampar, . . .	Gompar Maharaja.
Paya Kumba Barrat, . .	Mera Bongsa.
Mancal, ...	Sangsura Pahlawan.
Tiga Nenik, ...	Bongsa de Balang.

Rumbowe Ulu.	
Tribes.	*Heads of Tribes.*
Paya Kumba Darrat, . . .	Sama Raja.
Battu Ballang, ...	Andika.
Sa Melongang, ...	Mendalika.
Sri Lummah, ...	Senda Maharaja.

To this list may be added the names of four inferior tribes, which being scanty in number, and most of them of foreign origin, are represented by the heads of the more important tribes, viz. *Tiga Battu. Anak Malacca, Anak Achi,* (children of Malacca and Achin,) and *Tanna Dattar.* The *Bodoanda* tribes are represented by the *Panghulus.*

Malays, strangers to *Rumbowe,* while residing there, are amenable to the head of the tribe to which they belong. Settlers are immediately classed in their respective tribes. Those from *Menangkabowe* generally enter that of *Battu Ampar,* which is the principal of of the five tribes that originally emigrated from Menangkabowe; viz. those of *Muncal, Battu Ballang, Tiga Battu,* and *Tanna Dattar.*

A man marrying into another tribe becomes a member of that of the woman, as also the children.

Some of the tribes have peculiar privileges; it is said that the *Bodoandas,* though guilty of the highest crimes, are exempt from capital punishment; banishment and fines being the only penalty to which they are liable. The circumstance of the *Panghulus* of the independent states being necessarily *Bodoandas* has already been adverted to.*

Although the Malays, like the Greeks and Romans, entertain the highest veneration for old age, still the claims of descent supersede those conferred by years, particularly with regard to the heads of tribes, who have precedence in the councils of the state, conformably to the rank of the tribe they represent. An instance of this, and the power sometimes exercised by the *Sukus* in election, fell under my own observation. At *Sungie Siput,* on the frontier of *Rumbowe,* in 1833, among the assembly of Malay chiefs there, I observed a boy, whose dress and weapons betokened some rank, and to whom a considerable degree of deference was shewn by the natives. On inquiring, I found him to be the head of the principal tribe, and that, although a younger brother, he had been elected by the *Sukus* as the head of his tribe or clan, in consequence of his brother's imbecility. This boy affixed his name, or rather his mark (for neither he nor any of his seven compeers could write,) immediately after the *Panghulu* of *Rumbowe,* before the rest of the *Sukus,* some of whom were venerable old men, and grown grey in office.

Mantris.—There are two *Mantris* in *Rumbowe,* viz. SUROH Raja, and ANDIKA *Mantri,* both of the tribe *Bodoanda Jawa.*

Their functions are ill defined, but are principally, I believe, to assist the chiefs with their advice.

They have no vote in councils, and their influence must be almost entirely personal.

Laksamana.—The *Laksamanas* are also two, PASSAR and KHATIB. The navigation of the river and maritime matters are entrusted to these officers.

Panglimas.—The war-chiefs, or *Panglimas,* are four in number, viz. two *Panglima Prangs,* PANDIKA *Raja,* and *Panglima Dallam.* Their duties are similar to those of the former *Panglimas* of *Naning.*

Pertama.—There is another officer, appointed by the *Iang de pertuan Besar,* whose functions, fortunately for the liege subjects of *Rumbowe,* are seldom called into exercise. This is the *Pertama,* or executioner. The modes of putting criminals to death are generally confined to the *Panchong* and *Salang.*

The former is decapitation: the latter has been already described.

Passing up the *Rumbowe* river, on some high ground on the left bank between *Sempang* and *Padas,* a leafless, brighted tree was pointed out to me by one of the *Laksamanas*

* The division of the people of these states into tribes, some of which bear the names of places in Menangkabowe, is a strong additional proof of their origin.

who stated the foot of it to be the place where criminals, subjects of *Rumbowe*, were put to death by *Salang*.

Religion.—The inhabitants of *Rumbowe*, like those of the other states of the interior, with the exception of the aborigines, profess the tenets of *Islam*. They are divided into seven *Mukuns*, or parishes, to each of which is attached a mosque, with distinct establishments of priests, as in Naning.

A Kazi named HAJI HASHIM Sri LUMMAH presides over the whole. The religious customs, fasts, and festivals are similar to those observed in *Naning*.

Visit to Rumbowe.—As *Rumbowe* has seldom been penetrated by Europeans, the following memoranda, from my note book, of a visit paid to the chiefs at its capital, *Bander*, in 1832, by the then governor of the Straits, the Honorable Mr. IBBETSON, and Brigadier WILSON, C. B. may not perhaps be wholly devoid of interest.

Early on the morning of the 21st October, I joined from camp at *Alorgajeh*, the governor's suite at *Tabu*, the principal village of *Naning*, and late the residence of the ex-*Panghulu* DHOLL SAYAD.

After breakfasting under one of the thatched quarters that had escaped the pioneer's axe and brand on the late evacuation of this out-post, the party started on horseback along a foot-path, through a wooded country with the *Rumbowe* hills on the right, to *Chirana putih*, the last village of Naning. This was formerly a populous place, and the residence of the ex *Panghulu's* sons, but we found it now entirely deserted, and its houses falling into rapid decay and ruin. Here it was stated that DHOLL SAYAD had a manufactory for gunpowder during his late resistance to the Company's troops.

Leaving *Chirana putih* to the left, the path abruptly turns to the right, over or rather through a muddy *sawah* and leads towards the foot of *Gunong Tampin*. Along the skirt of this mountain, through a dense forest, the party had to travel in Indian file, the narrow foot-path being in several places blocked up by large forest trees lying across, to *Kubur Feringi*, or the Frank's grave, which is a mere mound in the jungle. This is one of the boundary marks of the *Rumbowe* and *Naning* territories, and is traditionally said to be the grave of a Portuguese officer, slain by the natives in one of those frequent skirmishes which took place between the followers of the gallant ALBUQUERQUE and the "rebellious *Menangkabowes*." The path to *Condong*, from *Kubur Feringi*, lay through the jungle at the foot of the *Rumbowe* range, and gradually improved as we approached that village. *Condong* is a populous hamlet, the first in the *Rumbowe* side of the boundary line, and is situated at the foot of the mountain of *Gunong Rumbowe*, on whose steep sides, amidst luxuriant forests, appeared singular patches of partially cleared ground, and a few rude huts, the habitation of the lords of the wood and rocks, the *Jakuns*. None of their sylvan eminences however, nor their attendant hamadryades, condescended to favor the party with their appearance.

From *Condong* to *Padang Loko*, the forest decreased in size and denseness, and here and there were traces of clearing and cultivation. A few small verdant patches, not deserving the name of plains, and two or three rivulets, were passed through. The distance from *Condong* to *Padang Loko* is about three miles.

From *Padang Loko* to *Lagon*, the road is bad, passing for the most part over heavy rice-grounds. The cultivation increased progressively as the belt of forest, the natural boundary between *Naning* and *Rumbowe*, was left behind, until we reached the banks of the *Rumbowe* river at *Lagon*. This stream was just fordable; its waters muddy, and evidently swoln by the rains.

After passing by a miserable path over a very extensive and well cultivated sheet of rice-ground, where the horses were frequently up to the saddle flaps in mud, fording another stream, and crossing a broad swampy plain, from the grassy tufts of which flew the startled lapwing and whistling plover, the cavalcade halted before the mud fort of *Bander*. From its gate issued a motley crowd of well-dressed Malays, brandishing spears, muskets, *pemurasses*, (a sort of blunderbuss,) and umbrellas of state, white and yellow, headed by the *Muda* of *Rumbowe*, and one of the sons of the *Iang de pertuan besar*, Raja ALI.

The governor, and brigadier WILSON, were received by these chiefs with every

demonstration of welcome and respect, conducted into the fort, and ushered by Raja ALI into a large temporary building, apparently erected for the occasion, opposite the Raja's primitive palace of thatch.

A salute from the fort jinjals was then fired, much to the discomfiture of one of the pieces, which, possibly from not being accustomed to powder, burst into divers rust-incrusted fragments.

Refreshments were served in, on a large flat tray; they consisted principally of dried fruits, dates, conserves, and sweetmeats, in which, as usual, sugar and oil were manifestly predominant. These were placed on small China dishes, and a number of minute cups of the same material, filled with the steaming infusion of Souchong, fresh from China, sans sucre et sans lait, were warmly pressed upon us.

In the evening, Raja ALI introduced two antique ladies, dressed with almost more than Spartan simplicity. The one his mother, the princess dowager, TUANKU PUTIH, and the other, his venerated kins-woman, his aunt. These ogresses of high degree would have rivalled in flow of language and exuberance of gesticulation the most vivacious dowagers, date 1770, Madame DU DEFFAND always excepted.

TUANKU PUTIH is represented to be a woman of strong masculine mind, and to have considerable influence over her son Raja ALI.

The fort of *Bander* consists of low mud walls, now covered with grass, inclosing a space of ground about 80 yards square.

Around and outside of the walls runs a strong and high palisade. Six high cavaliers of wood, roofed in with *atap*, overlook the faces of the work. On each of their platforms two iron guns are mounted, except on that over the gate-way, where there is a serviceable brass gun, bearing the mark of the Dutch East India Company; the date 1756, A. D. and the maker's name, PETER SEEST.

Besides the 12 guns in the cavaliers, were 18 or 20 jinjals lying about the parapets. The houses of the Raja and his personal attendants are within the area comprised by the fort walls.

After passing the night on mattrasses and pillows, covered with dirty red silk, embroidered in gold, and which had evidently been abstracted from the *Zenana*, the party left *Bander* early on the following morning.

The governor and brigadier WILSON proceeded *en route* to Malacca via *Padas* & the *Lingie* river. Lieut. BALFOUR, of the Madras Artillery, and myself, returned by *Brissu*, to camp, which we reached the same evening.

SAYAD SABAN, the present *Iang de pertuan Muda* of *Rumbowe*, is the son of an Arab named SAYAD IBRAHIM by his concubine Sri KAMIS, a Malay slave girl, a *Khana-zada* of ZAIN-UD-DIN, formerly *Capitan Malayu* in Malacca. He is a native of *Chembong* in *Rumbowe*, whither his father, a rigid zealot, had proceeded to promulgate and expound the tenets of the Koran.

His son, SAYAD SABAN, principally resided in *Rumbowe*, but occasionally at Malacca. Being naturally ambitious, he early sought to connect himself by marriage with the ruling families in *Rumbowe*, and *Siac*, in Sumatra. He first married a daughter of the *Iang de pertuan Muda* of Jellabu, Raja SABUN, a son of the second *Menangkabowe* prince, Raja ADIL. He then crossed the straits, and obtained the hand of one of the *Siac* chief's daughters. His next matrimonial connexions were with Raja ALI'S family.

SAYAD SABAN is young, active, and intriguing; but at present well disposed to the British government. Without the bigotry of his father he entertains a thorough contempt for the apathetic opium-eating Malay chiefs, his colleagues in power. He has a taste for war, and proved of great service in placing his father-in law, Raja ALI, over the heads of his competitors. His activity both for and against the troops in the *Naning* expeditions are well known.

By his own talents and address, the religious influence of his father, and from his Arab extraction, a circumstance to which the Malays invariably pay great deference and respect, and his high connexions, in the securing of which he has shewn great tact and forethought, this adventurer has risen to the *Muda*-ship of *Rumbowe*, and is now aspiring to the entire sovereignty of the states in the interior.

BENNIE, the present *Panghuln* of *Rumbowe*, is an elderly, grave person, with an unpleasing cast of features purely Malayan. He is at heart inimical to the claims of the *Muda* and Raja ALI. During the disturbances at *Lingie*, in 1833, he shamefully deserted his stockade, leaving it with several guns, and a quantity of ammunition, in the hands of the vassal chief KATAS; not without being strongly suspected of having received a considerable bribe for these pieces of treachery. He assisted the ex-*Panghulu* of Naning during the time he was in arms against government. BENNIE is addicted to opium-eating, and like other Malays of this class, is not, as experience has shewn, proof against the temptations of a bribe coming in the shape of this fascinating drug.

Among the *Sukus*, few are men of any talent or worthy of any particular notice. PAKKAT, an aspirant to the *Panghulu*-ship, and SUROH Raja, one of the *Mantris*, are much looked up by the Malays, with whom their opinions and councils have considerable influence.

I had an opportunity of hearing a very long improviso speech from the latter of these Malayan Ciceros, at *Sungie Siput*, on the boundary question. His position, unlike that of European orators, was a squatting one, on his hams, with the knees pliantly folded in front. The style of his address, like that of the generality of Asiatics, was grave and pompous; but the flow of his words easy and unbroken, except by a few little attentions bestowed on his betel-pounder *(gobik,)* by which his right-hand was kept in almost continual motion.

The speech, however, was so long, that the *Panghulu* of *Rumbowe* was fairly snoring before the customary *Ah, bagitu lah!* announced the finale of the effusion. Touching the gift of eloquence, I have observed that the Malays of the interior have generally a better and freer manner of expressing themselves than those of the coast; the language in which they clothe their sentiments is far more figurative, and full of metaphors, drawn from natural objects, and cannot fail to strike the hearer as highly pleasing and simply poetical. Their popular traditions are seldom put to writing, being committed to memory by some of their elders, and sometimes by old Malay ladies of rank, who are regarded by the simple natives, much in the light of a casket containing a valuable gem. Many of their customs are singular and peculiar, and deserving of more attention than has hitherto been paid them.

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JOHOLE AND ITS FORMER DEPENDENCIES OF JOMPOLE GOMINCHI.

By Lieut. NEWBOLD, *A. D. C. to Brigr. General* WILSON, *C. B.*

Johole. Of *Johole*, the third of the four *Menangkabowe* states, still less is known than of *Rumbowe* and *Sungie Ujong*.

An Englishman of the name of GRAY, (whose information is to be taken, however, with caution,) is said to have been the only European who has penetrated into the interior of this state. He passed through part of it in 1827, on his return to *Malacca* from *Pahang*, whither he had performed a journey overland, across the Peninsula, to barter opium for the gold dust of the latter place.

His route lay through *Naning*, part of *Rumbowe*, *Sriminanti*, *Jompole*, *Ulu Seruting*, *Ulu Braugh*, and *Ulu Pahang*. The journey was performed in 14 days.

From *Tabu*, in *Naning*, to *Jompole*, he was four days passing over mount *Lanjut*, to the villages of *Gadang*, and *Tanjong*; over mounts *Miko*, *Pabi*, and *Punting Pahat*, through the villages of *Passir*, *Juno*, and *Pila*, in *Sriminanti*; and from *Pila* to *Jompole*, "one day's walk."

Mr. GRAY describes the country he passed through, to have been in a state of high cultivation, particularly at *Miko*, and in the vales of *Punting Pahat*, *Juno* and *Passir*.

He observes that the paddy at *Miko* is preferable to that of Malacca, and that it is supposed by the people that the ground there is better for cultivation, one *gantang* of seed never producing less than a hundred-fold.

The produce of mount *Miko* is sapan wood, dammer, and canes of the species termed Pinang-lawyers in abundance. *Jompole*, he conjectures, to be about 90 miles distant from Malacca. *Pahang* is estimated at 300 miles distance from *Jompole*. From *Jompole* to *Pahang* the journey is by boat down the river *Seruting* to the large lake of *Braugh*, called *Tassek Braugh*; which is said by Mr. GRAY to be nearly fifty miles in circumference, and is formed by the flow of water from the neighbouring mountains.

If this account be correct, the lake *Braugh* exceeds in dimensions the recently discovered inland lakes in Sumatra.

The natives, however, have described this lake to me to be of much less extent; narrow but long. Its communication with the *Pahang* river, which empties into the China sea, is by a river called the *Braugh*.

Regarding the navigation of these rivers, Mr. GRAY observes: "in some parts of the *Seruting* and *Braugh*, a brig might go up, and in other parts, nothing but a small boat; on account of the water being above the fallen trees, so that the boat must be lifted before it can proceed, on account of the overhanging banks of the river."

The *Pahang* river, from the place where it receives the waters of the *Braugh*, down to the town of *Pahang*, is wide and deep. These streams are deepest in the months of November, December, and January. From the month of March to that of August, Mr. GRAY was informed, that it is impossible to proceed from the *Seruting* river to *Pahang*, on account of the paucity of water. The general depth of these rivers, in January, he ascertained to be between 40 and 60 feet; but on his return in February, he found their depth diminished by one-half.

There are a few villages on the banks of these rivers, but for the most part they are covered with lofty forests, tenanted by the rhinoceros, tapir, tiger, elephant, and scarcely more civilized *Jakun*.

Mr. GRAY met with great kindness and hospitality from the inhabitants of the different states through which he passed. He fell, however, a sacrifice to his exertions, dying of jungle fever, contracted during the journey, twenty-five days after his return to Malacca.

Boundaries.—Johole is bounded on the north by *Ulu Pahang* and part of *Rumbowe:* to the south by part of *Naning* and *Muar* or *Segamet:* to the east by *Segamet*, and to west by *Sriminanti* and part of *Rumbowe*. The boundaries with Malacca are from *Bukit Puttus* to *Battang Malacca*, and from *Battang Malacca* by *Bankong* Chondong* to Mount *Ophir*.

With *Segamet* and *Muar*, its boundaries are *Murbowe sa ratus* (the hundred *Murbowe* trees) and *Bankong Chondong*; with *Rumbowe, Bukit Pabi;* and with *Sriminanti, Bukit Pila*.

Population, &c.—The population of *Johole* is estimated at 2,000 inhabitants. The principal villages are *Nuri, Londong, Tney, Tuman*, and *Bennong*.

Johole is governed by a *Panghulu* and *Ampat Suku*. The former, like his brother chief of *Sungie Ujong*, is elected by the *Sukus*, and by the *Batin duablas*, or twelve heads of the *Jacoons*.

The name of the present *Panghulu* is ABU BEKER, or BANCHITA, and his title *Johan Lelah Percasseh;* he resides at *Nuri*, is an intelligent-looking person; plain, simple, and collected in manner, and much respected by his people.

The tribe are those of *Bodoanda, Sa Melongan, Tiga Battu*, and *Munkal*.

Sriminanti and *Jompole*, were formerly considered dependencies of *Johole*, but now assert their independence, as also does *Gominchi*. The *Panghulu*, LESSYE, of the latter place, died lately, and his brother MAHAMMED KARI succeeded him. *Pondok Passir* a small state under the influence of *Sriminanti*, was also a dependency of *Johole*, and is ruled by a petty *Punghulu* of its own.

* *Bankong Chondong* is a large tree, growing in the forest that separates *Assahan* from mount *Ophir*. The tree was still in existence when I visited Mount *Ophir* in 1833.

Besides the usual rights of revenue, the *Panghulu* of *Johole* levies ten per cent. on the produce of the tin mines, together with a tax on the gold of *Gominchi*, which will be shortly alluded to.

Trade.—The trade of *Johole* consists chiefly in gold dust; 20 catties of which are said to be produced annually. Tin, about 300 piculs. Fruits, ratans, jaggery, and fowls are brought in considerable quantities down to Malacca.

Jompole.—*Jompole* was anciently a dependancy of *Johole*, but is now nominally governed by Raja ALLANG, a son of the third *Menangkabowe* prince Raja HAM. The *Panghulu* and *Ampat Suku* exercise almost independent sway.

The name of the present *Panghulu* is ASSAIN; the tribes are those of *Bodoanda*, *Sa Melongan*, *Anok Malacca*, and *Tiga Battu*.

Jompole is in the high road of the *Pahang* traders travelling across the peninsula to Malacca; it is situated on a small river of the same name, which flows into the *Muar* river, (one of the largest streams on the western coast of the peninsula.) by which it has communication with the Straits of Malacca. By the river *Seruting* and *Braugh*, an easy intercourse from November to October to February is kept up with *Pahang* and the eastern coast. The Raja here levies a duty on the opium, tobacco, cloths, iron utensils, salt, &c. passing through *Jompole* to *Pahang*, as well as on the gold dust and silk cloths of *Pahang* returning to Malacca.

Jompole produces a considerable quantity of tin, sapan wood, rice, dammer, ratans, and a little gold, which is sent down the *Muar* river to Malacca (eight days' pull,) and also to *Pahang*.

The population of *Jompole* is estimated at 2 000; it is divided into three *Mukims*; viz. those of *Limbajon*, *Turuntong*, and *Qualla Lenney*.

Gold.—The following account of the gold mines at *Chimandros*, with the exception of the part relative to the assaying of the metal, which is from personal observation, is almost entirely drawn from native information.

Bukit Chimandros is a hill situated in *Gominchi*, a territory subject to the *Panghulu* of *Johole*, and bordering on the eastern frontier of *Naning*. It is covered and surrounded by an uninhabited forest of great extent, intersected by numerous rivulets, which derive their source from the hill.

Veins of quartzose rock run over it at various depths (generally from 12 to 20 feet) below the surface, forming the matrix in which the gold is found in small broken streaks.

The rock is enclosed in a bed of a sort of white clay, indurated more or less, termed *Napal*.

The method pursued by Chinese and Malays for separating the metal from its matrix resembles that adopted by the Hungarian miners, with this exception, that the process of amalgamation is not practised by the former for this purpose. The Kling assayers of gold, however, avail themselves of it in their vocation, as will presently appear.

The Malay miners, as soon as the precise spot and minute have been determined by their diviners, *Pawangs*, or other charlatans supposed to be skilled in discovering the hidden treasures of the earth, commence clearing the ground of trees, brushwood, &c. and then proceed to remove the roots and vegetable soil by means of *Billiongs* and *Chonkoles*, (the Malayan adze and spade,) until the bed of *Napal* is laid bare. These implements are now put aside, and a heavy sort of iron crow bar, (*perjong*) is had recourse to.

The first layer of *Napal* is soft and whitish; the second has a reddish tint. The last is a black incrustation resembling brick in hardness, and hence called by the natives *Tambiker Quali*; this is commonly two fingers' breadth, in thickness, and being removed, discovers the white vein of rock, the matrix of the gold, and termed the *Beting*. It is generally between three and four feet in diameter; underneath lies a bed of whitish earth, below which gold is never found.

The next process is that of breaking up the *Beting*, for which purpose the *perjong* is employed. From the extreme hardness of the rock this is a very laborious and tedious task. The coarse pieces are then pounded in a sort of large mortar cut from the quartz rock. The

pulverized stone is then passed through sieves (*Kisye*) of ratan, and carried in small baskets to a running stream, where the smaller stony particles are washed away while the gold dust, with the grosser pieces, sink to the bottom of the conical vessel in which it is subjected to the action of the stream.

The refuse is picked out, and the gold dust again carefully washed and collected in a cocoanut shell or leaf of the *Pallas* tree, and conveyed to the *Bongsal*, where it is dried by means of a red-hot piece of charcoal being repeatedly passed over its surface. After the adherent finer particles of the sand have been removed, it is weighed into quantities, generally of one *tael* each, which are carefully folded up in small pieces of cloth.

These packets constitute the *Bunkals* of commerce.

In Sumatra, according to MARSDEN, the parcels or *Bulses*, in which the gold is packed up, are formed of the integument that covers the heart of the buffaloe.

The *Bunkals* are, as in Sumatra, frequently used as currency instead of coin.

The weights* for gold formerly used as *Chimendros* and *Taon* (a place about half a day's journey thence) are as follows:

2	small sagas (*saga kechil*)	1	large saga (*saga besar.*)
8	Saga besar,	1	Maiam.
15	Maiams,	1	Tael or Bunkal.
20	Taels,	1	Cattie.

The Saga is a sort of small scarlet pea with a black spot, the *Abrus Maculatus*.

Besides *Chimendros* and *Taon*, I have not heard of any place on the peninsula where gold is obtained from the solid rock. On Sumatra it is frequently found in this state.

The gold dust at *Pahang* and *Jellye* is procured in the same manner as that in the mines at the foot of Mount *Ophir*.

The mines at *Reccan* are estimated to produce annually about 20 catties of gold dust.

The *Panghulu* of *Gominchi* first levied a tenth on the produce of these mines, but in consequence of large quantities of gold dust being secretly carried off, before the tenth had been levied, he substituted a sort of poll tax, amounting to a *maiam* of gold per annum, from each person working at the mines.

The *Panghulu* of *Johole* is in the habit of sending five or six buffaloes a year to the mines, receiving for every head of cattle two taels of gold.

These heavy drawbacks have caused the mines to become unprofitable to the speculators, and almost deserted. The former of these imposts, I believe, could readily be endured; but the latter *ad libitum* sort of exaction destroys all hope of reasonable profit.

The following is an estimate of the various degrees of purity of gold dust, the produce of the peninsula. It will be necessary to premise, that *mutu*, is a term denoting the degrees of fineness for gold, of which there are 10, as fixed by the native assayers. Gold of 10 *mutu* is equal therefore to gold of 24 carats: gold not reaching eight *mutu* is called *mas muda*, or young gold; and gold from eight to 10 *mutu*, *mas tuah*, or old gold.

Gold of *Reccan*,	9½	*mutu*.
Mount Ophir,	9¼	„
Chimendros and *Taon*,	9½	„
Pahang, *Jellye*, *Tringanu*, *Calantan*,	9¼	„

From *Calantan* gold of 10 *mutu* is sometimes obtained.

The assayers of gold are generally *Chulias* or *Klings*, who acquire by constant practice the power of determining to the fraction of a *mutu* the purity of any specimen of gold dust brought from the eastward†. As they would be perhaps liable to imposition were this

* At Malacca 10 Saga besar or 4 Kupangs are equal to one maiam.

† The natives are, I believe, totally ignorant of the assay by cupellation and acids.

the only trial they subjected the metal to, they have recourse to the *Battu uji* or touchstone. This is a roughish black stone, apparently basalt, brought from continental India, and generally set in a small frame of bronze or brass.

The assaying needles are generally from 20 to 24 in number, ranged on a string, and alloyed in known proportions of copper and silver, marked on the surface, from three to 9½ *mutu*. The needle and gold to be assayed are rubbed on the touchstone in parallel streaks, in the usual manner; a lump of the adhesive wax called *Lilin kalulut* is then applied to the surface of the touchstone, which brings off the two thin lamina of gold;—the difference between the two being more visible on the wax (which is coloured black—for this purpose with a fine charcoal made from the plantain leaf) than on the stone. This is the reason the native assayers give for the removal of the streaks of gold from the stone to the wax, though to me no difference was perceptible: possibly the following may afford another clue to the practice of the natives in this particular.

In this wax the impressions of the gold, which would be lost on the stone, go on accumulating; a ball of it, which my native informant had used for the last 30 years, he supposed to contain above two *taels* of gold.

The metal is separated from the wax by means of heat applied gradually, in such proportions as barely to cause the wax to pass off in the form of smoke: the residuum is then subjected to the process of amalgamation. Half of the gold thus obtained is dedicated in alms to the poor, or in religious offerings, at the shrine of some favorite saint or *Wali*; generally to that of MIRAN Sahib at Nagore.

The calculation of a Malay, long employed in the mines at *Chimendros*, makes the average quantity of gold produced from 40 lbs. of the pulverized stone, 24 grains of pure metal. Lumps of virgin gold, weighing from five to six *taels*, have been found in the alluvial soil here and at *Taon*. In *Jellye*, a mass weighing upwards of a *cattie* has been discovered: this will appear trifling if placed in comparison with that which REAUMUR mentions as having been shewn to the Royal Academy at Paris, weighing 448 oz. HELMS affirms that when one of the highest mountains of *Paraguay* fell down, about 50 years ago, there were discovered in it pieces of gold weighing from two to fifty pounds each.

(*Journal of the Asiatic Society, May* 1836.)

NOTE ON THE STATES OF PERAK, SRIMINANTI, AND OTHER STATES IN THE MALAY PENINSULA.

By T. J. NEWBOLD, *Lieut. A. D. C. to Brigr. General* WILSON. *C. B.*

PERAK.

Perak is separated on its northern frontier, from *Quedah* by the *Krian* river, which debouches into the Straits of Malacca, in about 5° 10' north. On the south it is divided from the piratical state of *Salangore*, by a river of inconsiderable magnitude called *Runkup*, which lies a little to the north of the *Bernam* river, in about 3° 59' north; interiorly by the chain of primitive mountains, that run down the centre of the Malay peninsula to *Point Romania* near *Singapore*, from the states of *Tringanu* and *Pahang* on the opposite coast. According to Captain GLASS, the territory under the sway of the *Perak* chief extended about 50 leagues inland: its length along the coast is upwards of 120 miles.

The principal town is situated a considerable distance up the *Perak* river, which is one of the largest and most rapid of the streams of the Peninsula that flow into the Straits of

Malacca: according to ANDERSON, it will admit vessels drawing 12 feet. The channel, however, is tortuous and intricate. The banks are generally covered with jungle, having but few villages at considerable distances. The places of most note are *Kota Lumut*, *Bander*, *Pantong Panjang*, and *Passir Garam*, about 30 miles up the river. The chief generally resides at *Passir Suyong* or *Passir Pulye*; places about three or four days' pull from the mouth. It has been stated to me by natives, that there are several stockades commanding the approach by water to these places.

Produce.—The principal products of this state are tin, rice, and rattans. The present produce of tin is about 8,500 *piculs* annually; this goes for the most part to the *Pinang* market: latterly some of it has found its way to *Singapore*. Mr. ANDERSON states, that the Raja Muda and Tuan u Hassin, son of the late chief, Taj-uddin, established posts a few years ago, about 30 miles from the river's mouth, where they levied a duty on all tin exported. These posts have since been abandoned. The chief himself derives most of his revenue from a toll on the tin produced: so much, it is said, as from four to six dollars per *bhar* of 3 *piculs*. The Dutch enjoyed, for upwards of a century and a half, during their sway at Malacca, the monopoly of the tin. They had a factory at *Tanjong Puttus* on the river, and a small fort on the harbour between the Dinding Islands and the main. The cultivation of rice has, of late years, been on the increase. I was assured, by some respectable *Perak* traders, that more than sufficient for home consumption was now grown.

Population.—The population of *Perak* is roughly calculated at 35,000 Malays, professing the mahomedan religion, not including the aboriginal tribes; a few Chinese, Arab and *Chuliah* (Malabar?) settlers.

History and Government.—*Perak* was formerly tributary to the Malayan sovereigns of Malacca, and afterwards to those of the kingdom of Achin. Since the decline of the latter, however, it has become in some measure independent; although Siam has, at various periods, asserted her claims to sovereignty, and demanded tribute. In consequence of the spirited resistance of the late chief, Taj uddin, to these arrogant and groundless assumptions, Perak was overrun in 1818 by the troops of the Raja of *Quedah* who had invaded it by order of the king of Siam. In 1822 the Siamese were expelled, and the rightful chief restored, by the powerful assistance of the late warlike chief of *Salangore*, Raja IBRAHIM.

The government is despotic. Perak has been ruled during the last three centuries by a race of chiefs, under the title of *Sultan*, who were connected with the ruling dynasties in *Johore* and *Achin*. Under the *Sultan* are five officers of state, forming a deliberative council, viz:—the *Bandahara*, *Tumungong*, *Raja Muda*, *Mantri*, and *Orang Kaya Besar*. Besides these there are six Panghulus over the six *Bongsas* (*Vansas*) or classes, into which the people are divided.

The succession to the throne is generally hereditary. *Sultan* Mansur Shah II., who died in 1818, was succeeded by his son Taj-uddin, who died about four years ago. His nephew, the present chief, Raja Cholan, succeeded.

Political and Commercial relations with the British Government. In 1818 a treaty of commercial alliance was concluded by the British Commissioner, Mr. CRACROFT, on the part of the Company, with the then Raja of *Perak*, *Sultan* Mansur Shah, chiefly with the view of preventing the monopoly of the tin trade by the Dutch, who were, at that time, about to resume possession of Malacca. This treaty provided against the monopoly, and secured to British merchants the privilege of being allowed to trade on equally favorable terms with *Perak* as any other nation.

By Major BURNEY's treaty with *Siam* in 1826, it was agreed that the Raja of *Perak* should govern his country according to his own will; should he desire to send the gold and silver flowers to *Siam*, as heretofore, the English would not prevent him; that if *Chow Phya*, of *Ligore*, desire to send down to *Perak*, with friendly intentions, forty or fifty men, whether Simese, Chinese or other Asiatic subjects of Siam, or if the Raja of *Perak* desire to send any of his ministers or officers to seek *Chow Phya* of *Ligore*, the English should not forbid them;—that no force should be sent by either nation to go and molest, attack or disurb *Perak*. The English engaged not to allow the state of *Salangore*

to attack or disturb *Perak*; and the Siamese, in turn, engaged not to go and attack or disturb *Salangore*.

The Siamese also stipulated in this treaty, that the present ex-king of *Quedah* should not be permitted to live at Prince of Wales' Island, or *Prye*, or in *Perak*, *Salangore*, or any Burmese country. (*Journal of the Asiatic Society, August* 1836.)

SKETCH OF THE STATE OF MUAR.

By T. J. NEWBOLD, *Lieut. A. D. C. to Brigr. General* WILSON. *C. B.*

The information contained in this paper was obtained partly from personal observation, and partly from enquiries made while on a visit to the chief of the country at *Gressik*, on the *Muar* river, 1835.

The state of *Muar* lies to the south of the Malacca territory, from which it is divided, towards the coast, by the *Kessang* river, and interiorly by a supposititous line drawn between *Bankon*, *Chondong* and Mount Ophir. The *Serting* river separates it from *Pahang*—*Parit Siput* from the tract of *Dattu Kaja Padang*—and the *Murbowe sa-ratus* from *Johole*.

Population.—The interior of *Muar* is generally termed *Segamet*. The united population is stated not to exceed 2,400. This appears extremely scant compared with the extent of territory; and arises from the misgovernment and apathy of the feudal sovereign, the Sultan of *Johore*—whence perpetual broils among the petty chiefs, causing insecurity of person and property, and eventually desertion of the soil by most of the cultivating and trading classes of the community. The honest peasant, in many instances is compelled from sheer necessity to turn robber; and the coasts, instead of being crowded with fishermen, swarm with pirates. These remarks may be applied generally to the whole of the Peninsula under native sway, though to *Muar* more particularly; the whole of which country appears to be one almost uninterrupted mass of jungle and swamp, if we can except a few straggling villages and clearings. Cultivated rice-grounds have degenerated into barren marshes—an enormous forest, abounding with wild elephants, overshadows a soil naturally rich and prolific; while the gaunt rhinoceros and uncouth tapir stalk unmolested over spots which, if tradition belies them not, were once the sites of large and populous towns.

Such is the melancholy picture of the effects of misrule which this unhappy country presents to the eye of the traveller, who cannot avoid being sensibly touched by this forcible, though silent, appeal for melioration.

The principal villages are *Bokko*, *Langkat*, *Gressik*, *Ring*, *Segamet*, *Pagoh*, and *Pangkalang Kota*, the residence of the chief, on the river.

Produce and Revenue.—The produce of the country consists of a little rice, sago, ivory, ebony, gold dust, tin, wax, aloe-wood, gum benzoin, camphor (small in quantity and of inferior quality,) ratans of the kinds *battu* and *jagga*, *Dammer battu*, *Dammer miniak*, jaggery, *Lakka* wood, and *Guligas*, stones extracted generally from the heads of porcupines, and in much repute among Malays for medicinal purposes.

The chief has been empowered by the late Sultan of *Johore* to levy an impost upon every *bhar* of tin exported, of ..... 1½ Spanish dollars.

One hundred bundles of ratans.	1	do.	do.
One bhar of ebony, ...	1½	do.	do.
One koyan rice imported, ...	2	do.	do.
One koyan salt do.	1	do.	do.
One catty of opium ditto.	20	do.	do.

On smaller articles he levies a duty of 5 per cent. He has the power of exacting the

gratuitous labour of his subjects, and derives some emolument from the fines he inflicts on them at pleasure.

Government.—*Muar* is under the sway of a chief bearing the title of *Tumungong*, who is a vassal of *Johore*. Under the *Tumungong* are eight *Panghulus*, four of whom are styled *Ampat de Ilir*—the remainder, *Ampat de Ulu*. The former are the *Panghulus* of *Gressik*, *Bukit Raja*, *Liang Battu*, and *Ring*;—the latter, those entitled *Besar*, *Tanjong*, *Daggang*, and *Muncal*. There is nominally a mosque under each *Panghulu*, but in that of *Umbum* alone is the *Juma-ahad* held. This is in the jurisdiction of the *Panghulu besar*. The customs enjoined by the code termed *Undang Malayu*, and the mahommedan law of succession obtains, to the exclusion of the *Tromba Pusaka* prevailing in the four *Menangkabowe* states.

History—*Muar*, like the rest of the Malay peninsula, was formerly inhabited by savage aboriginal tribes, among whom the *Jakoons* seem to claim the superiority. With regard to its origin, it is stated in the *Sejara Malayu* that *Sri Scander Shah*, the monarch of *Singapura*, on his city being taken by the *Bitara* of *Majapahit*, fled to *Muar*. This event took place about the middle of the 13th century; and it is asserted that he left one of his *Mantris* in the interior of *Muar*.

No more mention is made of this state until near the middle of the 14th century, when the kingdom of the Sultan of *Malacca*, MOZAFFER SHAH, was invaded by the Siamese under THAWI CHACRI. The Sultan on this occasion directed a levy of the population of *Muar* to be made, and the inhabitants to be assembled at *Malacca*. According to the Malay annals, the war between *Siam* and *Malacca* "continued for a long time, and great numbers of the Siamese perished; but *Malacca* was not reduced. At last the whole Siamese army retreated, and as they took their departure they threw down large quantities of their baggage ratans in the district of *Muar*, where they all took root; and that is the origin of the name *Rotan Siam*. Their stocks, which were formed of fig-tree wood, likewise took root in a place in the vicinity of *Muar*, where it still exists. The rests for the Siamese cooking places also took root and grew up, and are to be seen at this day at the place named *Tumang Siam*." I was unable to find out the locality of the places here mentioned by the author of the *Sejara Malayu*, though every enquiry was made near the spots where these scenes are said to have occurred. The tradition, however, of the defeat of the Siamese was universally current. In 1511, AHMED, Sultan of *Malacca*, on his city being taken by the Portuguese, retreated up the *Muar* river to a place called *Pagoh* about fifteen or sixteen miles from *Gressik*, now under the *Panghulu besar*, INCHI MUIT. Sultan MAHMUD remained at *Battu Hampar*, and founded a fort at *Bentayen*. According to the *Sejara Malayu*, the Portuguese pursued AHMED up the river, attacked and took *Pagoh*. AHMED, fled further up to *Panarigan*, near *Jompole*, and thence, accompanied by MAHMUD, repaired to *Pahang*. The latter subsequently established himself at *Johore*. Many of their adherents remained in *Muar* and *Segamet*, and in course of time erected a primitive form of government, directed by four elders, styled *Tuah Campongs*, who ruled under the Sultans of *Johore* until 1119 A. H. The four *Campongs* were those of *Pagoh*, *Sungie Ring*, *Sungie Terap*, and *Gressik*.

A. H. 1119, a *Mantri* of high birth in *Johore*, named SAMADE RAJA, obtained a grant of the territory of *Muar* from the then Sultan of *Johore*, ABDAL JALIL SHAH III. He settled at a place called *Pantei Layang* on the banks of the river, and ruled till 1145 A. H.; when he died succeeded by his son PADUKA TUAN; who, on his proceeding to the court of *Johore*, on the occasion of his father's demise, was invested by the Sultan ABDAL JALIL with the title of *Tumungong Paduka Tuan*. He died A. H. 1175, succeeded by his son BUROK or AHOK, who was confirmed by Sultan ABDAL JALIL SHAH IV., then resident at *Rhio*, whither he had removed from *Johore*. BUROK died at *Bunga Tanjong* on *Muar* river in 1214 A. H. leaving two sons, KONIK and IBRAHIM. The former went to *Lingga* to present himself to Sultan MAHMUD III. by whom he was acknowledged as third *Tumungong* of *Muar*.

KONIK died in 1246, A. H. leaving a son named SYED, the present chief, who succeed-

ed him: he also left a daughter. SYED proceeded to *Singapore*, where he was confirmed by the late Sultan, HUSSAIN SHAH I., whom the English had recently placed on the throne of his ancestors. From him he obtained the title *Tumungong Dattu Syed*.

It would appear from what has been advanced above, and by the subsequent boundary treaties, that *Muar* has always been feudal to the Sultan of *Johore* since the time of their ancestors, the ancient sovereigns of *Singapore* and *Malacca*. The Dutch however, when in possession of *Malacca*, appear to have claimed *Muar*, as in the map of VALENTYN the boundary line of the Dutch territory is made to extend so far beyond the *Muar* river as the *Rio Formoso*.

The *Tumungong's* sway is confined to the villages immediately on the banks of the *Muar* river and on those of the stream of *Segamet*, which empties itself into the *Muar* about 12 miles above *Pankalang Kota*. He appears to be popular from his easy temper, and the inhabitants feel alarmed at the idea of any change being made in the government by the Sultan of *Johore*. We had an interview with this Malay chief at a village, about 18 miles up the river, called *Gressik*. He acknowledges himself a vassal of *Johore*, and sends annually to the Sultan the amount of a duty levied on the houses of the settlers at *Pahang* (one dollar per house) and 200 *gumpits* of rice.

Malayan Albino.—On landing at *Gressik* I was struck by the singular appearance of a Malay lad, an *Albino*, standing under the shade of a tree on the river bank. His skin was of a reddish white, with blotches here and there, and thinly covered with short white hairs. The eyes were small and contracted; the iris of a very light vascular blue; the lids red, and fringed with short white lashes; the eyebrows scant and of the same colour; the pupil much contracted from the light. On calling him to come near he appeared to be ashamed.

He evinced an extreme sensibility to the stimulus of light, from which he almost constantly kept his eyes guarded by shading them with his hands. He told me he could see better than his neighbours in imperfect darkness, and best by moonlight, like the "moon-eyed" *Albinos* of the Isthmus of *Darien*.

He is morbidly sensitive to heat: for this reason and on account of the superstitious respect with which the Malays regard him, he is seldom employed by his friends in outdoor labour, although by no means deficient in physical strength. The credulous Malays imagine that the genii have some furtive share in the production of such curiosities, though this they tell as a great secret. To this day the tomb of his grandfather, who was also an *Albino*, is held sacred by the natives, and vows *(niyats)* made at it. Both his parents were of the usual colour. His sister is an *Albino* like himself.

Albinos, I believe, are not common on the peninsula, nor are there any tribes of them as, according to VOLTAIRE, exist in the midst of Africa. In the only two instances I recollect observing, the eyes were, in both, of a very light blue; the cuticle roughish and of a rosy blush, very different from that of the two African *Albinos* seen and described by VOLTAIRE, and quoted by LAWRENCE; "Leur blancheur n'est pas la notre; rien l' incarnat, nul melange de blanc et de brun, c'est une couleur de linge, ou plutot de cire blanchie; leurs cheveux, leurs sourcils sont de la plus belle et de la plus douce soie; leurs yeux ne ressemblent en rien a ceux des autres hommes, mais ils approchent beaucoup des yeux de perdrix." *Essai sur les Mœurs*.

WHITELAW AINSLIE, in his description of the *Albinos* of continental India, ascribes to them the same delicacy of constitution and shyness observable in the Malayan *Albino*, and that they are seldom known to live to an advanced age. The females, he remarks, rarely bear children; but when they do, their offspring is of the natural colour of the cast to which they belong.

Observations on the Muar river.—The *Muar* river at the mouth has an apparent width of about 600 yards, and at *Gressik* 18 miles up the stream is about 100 yards broad and 7 fathoms deep. The soundings at the bar varied from $\frac{3}{4}$ to 4 fathoms low water. The current ran at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. It has its rise, according to the natives, among the mountains of *Jellaboo*, and falls into the sea about 30 miles south-east of *Malacca*. From these mountains the *Serting* river, which disembogues itself into the China sea at *Pahang*, and the *Calang* river, which flows into the Straits of *Malacca* near *Salangore*,

have also their rise. The general direction of the *Muar* river from the mouth to *Gressik* we found to be N. E.—its course tortuous, the banks for the most part low, muddy, and covered, with the exception of the vicinity of villages and a few *Ladang* clearings, with dense jungle. Among the trees near the river's margin we observed the mangrove, the *Nipah* palm, (the *Nypa fruticans* of THUNBERG) the *Nibong*, (the *Areca Tigillaria* of Dr. JACK,) the *Api-Api*, (*Pyrrhanthus Littoreus*,) the *Pedada*, the *Neridi*, and the *Buta-Buta*.

The water of the river was more turbid than that of the *Lingie*, which might be owing to the freshets from the hills. The paucity of cultivation, thinness of population, and the almost total absence of trading boats and even fishing canoes on the river, could not fail to strike the most careless observer. By this river there is a communication, almost all the way by water, with the eastern coast of the peninsula, frequently adopted by the *Pahang* traders. The navigation was formerly under the control of a *Bugis* chief named UNKU KLANA, who settled at the mouth of the river, and, after him, under his son *Raja* ISSA: but on the return of the latter to *Rhio* in 1826, it reverted to the *Tumungong*.

In former days the mouth of the river was a noted place of rendezvous for the fleets of the Siamese, and in later times of the Malay princes, in their attacks on *Malacca* during the Portuguese and Dutch administrations. The last instance occurred in 1784, when *Raja* HADJI, the *Muda* of *Rhio*, anchored there with a fleet of 170 prows on his way to invade *Malacca*; an enterprize in which he lost his life.

Gold Mines of Bukit Raya.—Gold dust is found a short distance from the left bank of the river at *Bukit Raya*, a low hill covered with forest, which was pointed out to us by the guides. There were, we were told, formerly gold mines on and at the foot of this hill worked by Malays, who were compelled to quit them through the exactions of the petty chiefs. The *Tumungong* had brought down with him in his own boat to *Gressik*, two Chinese miners, with the view of ascertaining whether any mining speculations there would be likely to turn out profitably or otherwise. I have not heard the result. Tin is also found near *Bukit Raya*.

From *Gressik* we saw a range of hills at a great distance running down the peninsula in a south-easterly direction, one of the highest of which is called *Siang-battu*, the cave of the rock. From this mountain, the natives affirm, flow the rivers of *Battu Pahat*, (the *Rio Formoso* of the Portuguese,) *Pontian*, *Undowe*, *Roompin*, *Bennoon*, and *Johore*; the last of which streams empties itself into the sea at the extremity of the peninsula: on its left bank stood the capital of the Malay empire of *Johore*. This range of mountains seems to be a continuation, if I may so term it, of the broken chain running down the peninsula through the states of *Quedah*, *Perak*, *Salangore*, *Sungie Ujong*, *Rumbowe*, *Jellaboo*, and *Srimenanti*, terminating near Point *Romania*, and probably having their origin in the lofty ranges which overlook the vast *steppes* of Northern Asia.

(*Journal of the Asiatic Society, Sept.* 1836.)

ACCOUNT OF SUNGIE UJONG, ONE OF THE STATES IN THE INTERIOR OF MALACCA.

By Ensign T. J. Newbold, 23rd. Regt. Madras Light Infantry.

[*Read at the Meeting of the Asiatic Society of Bengal on the 5th August* 1835.]

[The following information, touching the population, customs, amount of produce, boundaries, &c. of the states described, has been principally and necessarily derived from the natives themselves. It is therefore offered with diffidence; but, at the same time, it is to observe here, that fully alive to the disadvantages of such sources, no labor has been spared by me to check and render by collation and patient investigation, such information now submitted, as correct and near the truth as possible.]

The states in the interior, formerly under general sway of the princes deputed from Menangkabowe, are under the immediate government of their respective *Panghúlús* and *Súkús*. As each state has its peculiar features, it would seem adviseable to give them a separate notice. By Malays, the precedence is ascribed to Súngie Ujong; the *Panghúlú* of which territory is addressed, by his brethren, by the appellation of *Abang*, elder brother; the second place is given to Rumbowe, and the third to Johòle. Srimenánti, whose claims still remain unsettled, aspires to the fourth place.

Boundaries.—Súngie Ujong is situated towards the source of the right branch of the Lingie river. It is bounded to the north by Jellabú; to the south, by part of Rumbowe and the Lingie river; to the east by Srimenánti, and to the west by Salangore. Its boundaries with Jellabú are said to be Búkit Tángoh and Dhúlúkáru bander Barangan; with Rumbowe, Búkit A'ngin, part of the right branch of the Lingie river, and Parentian Tingih; with Srimenánti, part of Terách and the Páro stream: and with Salangore or Callang, by the river Lángkat, Kobak Kámbang, and Tongal Sejága.

Population.—The population in 1832, was estimated at 3,200 Malays, principally Menangkabowes; and 400 Chinese employed in the mines. Many of the latter have since fled to Malacca, in consequence of the disturbances in 1833. The principal villages are Lingie, (the residence of the *Datu Múda* Katas;) Pantei, (the residence of the *Panghúlú*;) Jíboi, Sála, Linsom, Durian, Tanjong, Rassah, Kopaiyong, Rantou, Síliou, and Jirrah. The Terách territory, a portion of which appertained to Súngie Ujong, now claims independance.

Trade.—The trade of Súngie Ujong is principally in tin, which is got at Sála, Sa Máraboh, Battu Lobong, Kayu Arra, and Timiong. Thence it is brought down to Lingie, and landed at Pankálangs, Cúndang, Durian, and Mangis.' It is here deposited in ware-houses, and generally bartered for rice, opium, salt, tobacco, cloths, oil, and shells for making lime, brought up by boats, from ½ to 1½ coyans burthen, which cannot easily ascend higher than this part of the river. The tin is conveyed by Malay coolies, by land, from the mines, as far as Jíbói; a village estimated at 30 miles from Lingie; and thence to Lingie, by small boats, down the river.

From the following extracts from treaties made by the Dutch, it would appear that they did not neglect to avail themselves of this source to increase the revenue of Malacca.

Article I. of a treaty concluded by the Dutch Governor W. Boelan in Council, with the chiefs of Rumbowe and Calang, dated Malacca, 24th January, 1760.

"The tin being the produce of Lingie, Rumbowe, and Calang, without any exception, will be delivered to the Company at 38 drs. a bhar of 3 piculs; and this price will always continue,

without its ever being enhanced; it will be in the power of the Company to seize and confiscate, and to appropriate for their use, all tin which might be discovered to have been fraudulently exported from the places abovementioned."

A profit equal to about 12,000 Spanish dollars is supposed to have accrued to the Dutch annually from this monopoly; which so rigid were they in enforcing, that we find it stipulated in the same treaty, "that no boats or vessels, to whomsoever they may belong, shall be allowed to pass the Company's settlement at Lingie without touching, in order that a search may be made in such boats or vessels for tin; any person attempting to evade these rules, will be liable to have their boats, and the tin which may be found in them, confiscated and sold, and the proceeds appropriated for the use of the Company and the said chiefs." Also, that "no boats or vessels of any description whatever be permitted to proceed from the north or south, passing from the latter to the former part, or passing the straits of Malacca, without being provided with a pass on pain of being seized."

During the British Government at Malacca, from 1795 to 1818, the trade fell into the hands of private individuals, principally Dutch and Chinese merchants residing at Malacca. In 1819, the Dutch resumed the monopoly, as we find from the 7th article of a treaty, dated Naning, the 5th day of June, 1819, between the Supreme Government of Netherlands India and Raja ALI, the *Panghúlú* and *Ampát Súkú* of Rumbowe, which runs thus: "Raja ALI, the *panghúlú* and *Ampát Súkú* of Rumbowe, must give up to Government all the tin from Lingie, Súngie Ujong, Rumbowe, and any place under their authority, without reservation. The Government binds itself to pay 40 Spanish dollars per bhar of 300 catties, or 370 lbs., &c."

On the resumption of Malacca by the English, 1825, the tin trade relapsed into the hands of the private merchants.

Miners.—In 1828, the number of Chinese miners amounted to nearly 1000 men, who were regularly divided into nine *Kongsis* or companies, each under its respective *Tao-kae*. They were chiefly of that singular fraternity, the *Tian Tay Huay*, or Triad Society, whose mysterious oaths and secret laws appear to be not very dissimilar from those which bound the Carbonari of Modern Europe. Jealousy of their fast increasing power and numbers, or some alledged offence, but more probably the treasure amassed by this brotherhood, (whose property was in common, led in 1828, to their massacre by the Malays.

In 1830, the mines were again worked by 400 Chinese, who went up, at the inducement of some Malacca merchants, and continued there until the late disturbances in 1833, when many of them returned to Malacca. The mines at present are but partially worked, and very little of the tin passes down the river, in consequence of the feud existing between the Rumbowe chiefs and those of Sungie Ujong and Lingie.

The Malays and Chinese employed in the mines were liberally paid. The rate of their wages will shew the difference of value set upon the services of the two classes;—a Chinese being paid at the rate of 5 to 8 dollars per mensem; and a Malay from 3 to 5 only.

From day-break to 7 A. M., they are employed in clearing the mines from the water which accumulates during the night. From 7 to 8 they rest and breakfast. At 8, the process of digging out the earth and ore is commenced. At 11, they go to dinner, and return to work about 1 P. M.

At 5, their cease for the day. No work is done at the periods of new and full moon.

Like their Cornish brethren, the Malay miners are very superstitious. They believe in the existence of a spirit (*Kummang*), who watches over the mines, and whose wrath they are particularly careful not to provoke by word or deed. They have "wise men," or *Puwángs*, who pretend to be able to ascertain the most favorable spots for sinking a mine, by various spells and charms; these may be compared with the charlatanic wielders of the *virgula divinitoria* in our own "enlightened country."

Previous to a description of the mines, a short outline of the principal geological features of the peninsula, as far as present imperfect information extends, may not wholly be out of place.

The southern part of the Malayan peninsula and Banca assimilate in geological formation. Dr. HORSFIELD, in his observations on the mineralogical constitution of Banca, observes, that "the direction of the island being from north to south-west, it follows not only

the direction of Sumatra and the Malayan peninsula, but the large chain of Asiatic mountains, one of the many branches of which terminates in Ceylon, while another traversing Arracan, Pegu, the Malayan peninsula, and probably Sumatra, sends off an inferior range through Banca and Billiton, where it may be considered to disappear."

This chain of mountains may be considered as the termination of one of those beams or pillars of lofty hills, spoken of by M. DE GUIGNES, in his works on the Huns, as supporting the stupendous edifice, to which he compares the elevated regions of Tartary, comprehending the lofty ranges of *Imaüs* and *Caucasus;* and the dome of which is represented as one prodigious mountain, to which the Chinese give the epithet of *celestial,* down the steeps of which numerous broad and rapid rivers pour their waters.

The Malayan range, as far as has been hitherto explored, is of primitive formation; principally grey stanniferous granite.

In the gold countries of Tringanu, Pahang, Gominchi, and Mount Ophir, rocks and crystals of quartz are met with. At the southern extremity, and in some parts of Salangore, porphyry occurs.

The islands in the neighbourhood of Malacca, and those off the eastern extremity of the Salangore coast, consist principally of granite and laterite with sienite.

According to Dr. WARD, "The small hills in the neighbourhood of Malacca are formed of a conglomerate, the base of which is clay iron stone, containing imbedded portions of felspar, in a state of decomposition (having all the properties of yellow ochre), and small grains of quartz and iron glance, scattered through its substance.

"The specific gravity of the rock is 2,536; when recently dug, it is soft, can be easily cut, and readily stains the fingers; but after exposure to the air for some time, it acquires such a degree of hardness as to be broken with difficulty: and its durability is shewn by the present state of the ancient buildings, which have stood unimpaired for nearly 300 years.

"In its dry state, it is porous, from the destruction of the ochreous particles by moisture and exposure to the air, resembling old lava in its external appearance.

"In all its properties, it agrees exactly with the rock common on the Malabar Coast, and described by Dr. BUCHANAN under the name of laterite."

The mountains at Penang are also "composed of very fine granite, and all the smaller eminences are of the same material." "Some of the small hills near the coast are partly formed of the laterite already described when speaking of Malacca; and Saddle Island at the south-western angle of Penang, is apparently entirely composed of the same ingredient."

At the Carimons, hornstone is found. Mr. MARTIN states, the aspect of the Island of Singapore, (situate on the southern extremity of the peninsula, in Lat. 1° 17' 22" north, and Long. 103° 51' 5" east,) to be "low and level, with an extensive chain of saline and fresh water marshes; in several parts covered with lofty timber and luxuriant vegetation, here and there low round sand-hills interspersed with spots of level ground, formed of a ferruginous clay, with a sandy substratum. The principal rock is red sandstone, which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragments and crystals of quartz. The whole contiguous group of isles, about thirty in number, as well as Singapore, are apparently of a submarine origin, and their evulsion probably is of no very distant date." It may be added, that bouldered pieces of primitive trap are found on the shores of Singapore, though none has hitherto been seen in *situ*.

The range of the mountains of the peninsula, as it approaches the equator, diminishes in height. The highest of the Rumbowe and Johor ranges, (with the exception of Mount Ophir,) not exceeding probably, 3,000 feet; while many of those to the north of Kedah are said to be upwards of 6,000.

Mount Ophir, a detached mountain, between 30 and 40 miles to the eastward of Malacca, I calculated roughly (by means of the thermometer and boiling water) to be 5,623 feet above the level of the sea; its summit is granite. Gold dust and crystals of quartz are found in considerable quantities around its base.*

From information hitherto collected, and inquiries made among the natives, it would not appear that any volcanoes exist in the interior; though the circumstance of numerous hot-

* See J. A. S. vol. ii. page 497.

springs, scattered over the face of the country, and other indications, sufficiently testify the presence of subterraneous fires. Severe shocks of earthquakes have been felt from time to time, but whether caused by violent eruptions from any of the volcanoes on the opposite coast of Sumatra, or by under-ground explosions there, or in the peninsula itself, is uncertain.

There are hot-springs in the vicinity of Malacca; at Ayerpánnas and also at Sabáng, and at Lúndi in the Nanning territory. I have visited the two former places, and found the temperature of the water at noon of the springs at Ayerpánnas, to be 120° Farenheit, and at 6 A. M., 113½°.

The temperature of the hot-springs at Sabáng was found at 6 A. M. to be 116° Fahrenheit. The variation in the former instance is accounted for by the different temperatures of atmosphere at the time of taking the heat. The heat of the springs in both cases, I found to exceed that of the atmosphere by an average of 35° Fahrenheit, in several comparative trials.

At the wells near Sabáng, when the bulb of the thermometer was pushed into the soft vegetable mould at the bottom of the spring, the mercury rose to 130°.

The springs at both places are situated in swampy flats, environed by small hills. They average from 1 to 2½ feet in depth, and are discernible from a distance by the steam and odour that escapes. The water is of a pale bluish green tinge; from the bottom bubbles of air (probably sulphuretted hydrogen) ever and anon find their way to the surface, where they burst.

Dr. WARD analysed a portion of the water from the springs at Ayerpannas, and found, that on slow evaporation in a sand-bath, 1600 grains of the water left a residuum of eight grains of saline matter, principally muriate of soda, with a slightly bitter taste, indicating the presence of sulphate of magnesia.

The surface of the peninsula is covered generally by alluvial deposites, rich in ore of tin, and not unfrequently mixed with gold; over this lies a layer of vegetable mould, in which stones or pebbles are seldom found.

In the interior, the land is mountainous, but undulating towards its coasts, shaded by primæval forests, and stored with treasures to the botanist and naturalist; it is almost devoid of plains. The strips of low ground lying in the hollows of the undulations are almost invariably swampy, and are converted into *Sawahs*, or wet rice-grounds, by the natives.

At various places along its western coast are low cliffs, if they may so be termed, of a reddish steatite.

The banks of the most considerable rivers are generally low, swampy, and covered with mangrove, *Nipah*, *Nibong*, and other trees of the same nature.

The bottom is for the most part of mud, except at short distances from the estuaries, where sand banks and coral reefs are often met with.

The tin of the peninsula, and the eastern islands, (particularly those of Junk Ceylon, Lingga, and Banca, which may be styled the eastern Cassiterides,) is diffused over a great geographical extent.

Mr. CRAWFURD observes, that "tin, has a limited geographical distribution; but where it does exist, it is always in great abundance. The tin of the Indian Islands has, however, a much wider range of distribution than that of any other country, being found in considerable quantity from the 98° to the 107° of east longitude, and from the 8° north to 3° south latitude."

It has, however, been since stated by Mr. ANDERSON, that tin has been found in considerable quantities much farther north, viz. in the interior of Tavoy, in latitude 12° 40° north; the mines are situated at a place called Sakana, about four days' journey from the city of Tavoy.

It has been affirmed, that tin exists so high as 14° north, in Siam.

The peninsula of the present day, although auriferous, appears not to deserve its appellation of "The Golden Chersonesus," so much as its neighbour, the Island of Sumatra, to which, by the way, there is a tradition mentioned by the early Portuguese historians, that it was formerly united. Sumatra, by some, has been supposed to be the *Taprobána* of the ancient geographers; this Mr. MARSDEN denies, ascribing rather the name to Ceylon, the *Serendib* of Muhammedan writers, and the *Lanca* of the Hindus; and affirms, that Sumatra

was unknown to them, denouncing the descriptions given by STRABO, POMPONIUS, MELA, PLINY, and PTOLEMY, as obscure and contradictory.

Admitting the tradition to be based on truth, it might be conjectured, that the Peninsula and Sumatra, thus united, formed that tract of country known to the Greeks and Romans by the title of "*Aurea Chersonesus*" This might serve in some measure to explain why so extensive an island, and one so rich in gold and spices, the two great desiderata of ancient, and I may venture to surmise, modern days, should have escaped the notice of ancient geographers.

The quantity of gold dust exported annually from the south-west coast of Sumatra and Achin alone, according to MARSDEN and HAMILTON, amounts to 26,400 oz. The former states, that there are no fewer than twelve hundred gold mines in the dominions of Menangkabowe alone; a considerable portion of the produce of which (perhaps one-half) never comes into the hands of Europeans.

The gold of the peninsula, on a rough estimate, amounts to 19,800 oz. annually. It is chiefly got at Ulú Pahang, Tringanu, Calántan, Johole, Gominchi, and Jeleye; Reccan, Battang, Moring, and other places at the foot of Mount Ophir.

A small quantity of iron is found in the interior of Quedah, in the peninsula, and also in Sumatra. Siam and Billiton produce this metal in tolerable abundance.

I do not find that silver is produced in any part of the peninsula; although Perak, from its name, which signifies silver, and which is conjectured by MARSDEN to have been the *Argusa* of PTOLEMY, might have been supposed to have derived its appellation from the presence of this metal.

The tin produced annually in the peninsula, including the adjacent Island of Junk Ceylon, is estimated at 34,600 peculs.

According to CRAWFURD, the tin of Banca, produce of 1817, amounted to 35,000 peculs, or 2,083½ tons.

Tin Mines.—The mines are generally excavated on the swampy flats at the base of hills of primitive formation. They average from six to twenty feet in depth, following the streams of ore (*Húlúr bíjí*), which will sometimes run in a horizontal direction to the distance of three miles, according to the nature of the ground. These excavations are termed *Lombongan*. The streams vary in diameter from six inches to eighteen and twenty, and consist of a quantity of small heavy granulated portions of dark hue, and shining with a metallic lustre, intermixed with a glittering white sand. The excavations made by the Malays, are more superficial than those dug by the Chinese, as they are too lazy to work the streams, which lie deep.

The strata under which the ore is found are commonly, 1st. a black vegetable mould; 2nd, red clay; 3rd, white clay, with white pebbles, apparently decomposed quartz, and 4th, a bed of shining white sand, called *Passír bíjí*. Under the ores lies a stratum of steatite, called *Nápal*, or a hard bed of decomposed rock. The native term for the tin ore is *Bíjí timah*, literally seeds of tin; when melted, it has the name of *Timah masak*. Crystals of quartz and fragments of micaceous schist are sometimes found among the alluvial earth thrown out.

The soil is carried out by the miners in baskets, suspended at the extremities of a stout elastic bambú or *penága*, which passes across the shoulders. The men are divided into two parties, which work in regular succession, one entering the shaft with emptied baskets, while the other makes its egress, with the filled ones. At Ulu Pondoi, in Naning, and at Jerram Kambing, I am informed the mines are natural caverns in the rock. The Malays and *Jacoons* collect the ore by the light of dammer torches.

The ore is taken to a stream, conducted by artificial channels, lined with the bark of trees, to the vicinity of the mines, and stirred about with an iron rake, or a *choncole*. The waters carries off the sand, small pebbles, and earth, leaving the ore and large stones at the bottom, which are afterwards separated by a riddle and the hand. The ore, thus cleared of extraneous substances, is deposited in the *koppos*, to await the process of smelting.

Smelting or Melanchúr.—The smeltings are carried on at stated periods, twice or

thrice a year, according to the quantity of ore collected, and always at night, to avoid the great heat.

The ore and charcoal, (of the *Kompas*, *Kamoui*, or other hard woods,) are gradually heaped up, in alternate layers, in a rude furnace of clay, called a *Bullowe*, with an aperture below, to allow the escape of the fused metal. The fire is urged, and the whole mass brought into a glow by a sort of leathern bellows called *Hambúsan*, and sometimes by ruder ones, constructed like an air-pump, and made from the hollowed trunk of a strait tree, with a piston, headed by thick folds of paper. These are called *Kalúbongs*.

The Malays for the most part content themselves with the *Tropong*, which is merely a hollow bambú converted into a sort of blow-pipe, and worked by the mouth.

As the heat increases, the melted metal is received into a hole dug in the ground, called *Telága*, or reservoir; and thence, with the assistance of iron ladles, poured in the moulds.

The tin now assumes the shape of the ingots of commerce, of which there are two kinds in Súngie Ujong, viz. the *Támpang* and *Kenping* or *Bangka*. The former weighs from half a catty to two catties, and the latter, from fifty to sixty catties; one catty is equal to one pound and three-quarters.

The *Támpang* is generally used by the Malays.

In the furnaces used by the Chinese, 800 *lbs.* of metal may be produced during the course of a night. Those of the Malays seldom produce more than one-sixth of this quantity.

From 100 parts of the ore, it is calculated, from 65 to 77 of pure metal are produced. The ore of Banca yields 58. That of Junk Ceylon, according to an assay made by Mr. BLAKE, 64½.

The water is drained from the mines, if shallow, by means of a channel, leading into a neighbouring stream; but if deep, the *Putáram Ayer* is had recourse to. This hydraulic machine is, I believe, of Chinese invention. The Rev. Mr. TOMLIN, a zealous missionary, gives the following description of it:

"The apparatus is simple, consisting of a common water-wheel, a circular wooden chain about 40 feet in circumference, and a long square box, or trough, through which it runs in ascending. The wheel and chain, I think, revolve on a common axis, so that the motion of the former necessarily puts the latter into action. The chain consists of square wooden floats, a foot distant from each other, and strung as it were upon a continuous flexible axis, having a moveable joint between each pair.

"As the float-boards of the chain successively enter the lower part of the box of trough, (immersed in water,) a portion of water is constantly forced up by each, and discharged at the top. At one of the mines we were much struck with the simple but efficient mode of its application. There were three distinct planes or terraces rising above each other. On the middle one was the wheel; the lower was the pit of the mine; from the higher a stream of water fell and turned the wheel, which, putting the whole machine into motion, brought up another stream from the pit; these two streams, from above and below, uniting on the middle plane, ran off in a sluice, by which the ore was washed."

Regarding the smelting of tin, in a recent number of Dr. LARDNER'S Cabinet Cyclopædia, (No. 54, pp. 21 and 22) are the following remarks on the advantages of pit coal over charcoal: "Authorities are not agreed as to the time when pit coal first began to be substituted in the reverberatory smelting houses (of Cornwall) for wood or charcoal, though this is generally supposed to have been about 1680.

"In the smelting of this (tin), as of other metals, the application of this fuel has been productive of immense advantages; and such is the perfection to which our metallurgic operations have been carried since the economical introduction of this cheap and plentiful fuel, that the regulations of our custom-house alone prevented the carrying a scheme set on foot some years ago, for the importing of the tin ore from the eastern mines, for the purpose of being smelted in this country, and afterwards re-exported."

It would appear to have escaped the observation of the author of this article, that the enormous forests which thickly cover the whole of the Malayan peninsula, and the Island of Banca, under the very shade of which the miners may be said to work, furnish on the spot a cheaper and more economical fuel than the coal pits of Newcastle or Whitehaven do to the

miners of Cornwall, at the sole expense of the labor of felling them; setting aside the loss of time, the expence of importation and exportation, and disinclination of the natives to such a scheme. Moreover, according to Mr. CRAWFURD, the cost of producing a cwt. of Banca tin is but 22*s*. 8*d*., whereas that of Cornwall amounts to 64*s*. 7*d* The cost of producing a cwt. of the metal in Súngie Ujong is estimated by an intelligent native at 23*s*. The immense natural obstacles in Cornwall, only to be surmounted by the most powerful steam engines, and the unremitting application of all the means human ingenuity can devise, together with the high price of labor, are, however, the principal causes in the enhancement of the cost of production in England.

The time perhaps is not far distant when like ingenuity and similar means will be applied to the unlocking of the hitherto partially developed resources of the East.

According to the best native information, the annual produce of the peninsula, before the late disturbances in the tin countries, was as follows:

Places.	*Peculs.*
Súngie Ujong,	7,000
Perak,	7,500
Quedah,	600
Junk Ceylon,	1,500
Pungah,	1,500
Salangore, Balang, and Langkat,	2,000
Lúkùt,	1,600
States in the interior of Malacca,	900
Pahang,	1,000
Kemaman and Tringanu,	7,000
Calantan,	3,000
Patani,	1,000
	34,600.

The discovery of tin in the peninsula cannot be traced, but it is assuredly of ancient date. Part of Perak is said to be the *Temála*, or land of tin, of PTOLEMY, and *Caláng*, (a name signifying tin in Malay,) to be the *Malaiou Colon* of the same author, and the *Malaya Culam* of the Hindus.

The tin mines of Banca are of modern origin, being accidentally discovered, Mr. MARSDEN tells us, in 1710, by the burning of a house; the trade of the peninsula suffered considerably in consequence.

According to Mr. CRAWFURD, (as before stated,) the tin of Banca, produce of 1817, amounted to 35,000 peculs, or 2,083⅓ tons, equal to half the produce of England. But under the management of the Dutch, I am informed, it now scarcely produces half that quantity.

The price of Banca tin is from 16 to 16½ dollars per pecul = 133⅓ *lbs*., and of Straits tin, (chiefly from the peninsula,) from 14½ to 15. British block tin, in 1832, was selling at £3. 12*s*. 6*d*. per cwt.

In consequence of a supposed adulteration of Straits' tin, some specimens of ingots of this metal, rejected at Canton, were sent from Singapore to be assayed at Calcutta in 1831. This was done at the Calcutta assay office, which pronounced the specimens to be of good quality, and perfectly good in a mercantile sense.

"Great Britain, (according to Dr. LARDNER's work already quoted,) notwithstanding the productiveness of her own mines, imports upwards of 700 tons per annum of oriental, or, as it is more commonly called, Banca tin, from the name of one of the Malay islands, where it is chiefly obtained. The Malay countries are reckoned the richest depositaries of this metal in the world; and from them, China, Hindostan, and many European markets are chiefly supplied. England exports annually about 2,000 tons of tin, including 400 or 500 tons of that received from abroad." Her produce varies from 3 to upwards of 4000 tons annually.

Revenue.—Besides the *Kandála dágang*, and other sources of revenue previously mentioned, as enjoyed by the *Panghúlú Delantye* of the interior states, the *Panghúlú* or *Klána* of Súngie Ujong, and the *Rája adhi Rája* have the privilege of purchasing, at every smelt-

ing, from each *bongsal*, three *bhars*, equal to 9 piculs, or nine hundred catties of tin, at six dollars per *bhar* less than the market price, and exact a duty of six dollars a month for each mine dug on their own lands.

The *Dattu Múda* of Lingie levies also a dollar per *bhar*, on tin passing down the river.

The *Kapála Dágang* is a sort of poll tax on slaves imported into the interior, from four to six dollars per head; they are generally *Battaks* from the vicinity of Battu Bára, on the opposite coast of Sumatra, and average twenty annually. They fetch a price from 20 to 60 dollars each; according to age, condition and sex; a higher value being set on the females.

In addition to these imposts, the chiefs of Súngie Ujong formerly enjoyed the division of a premium paid annually by the Chinese and other merchants of Malacca for the tin monopoly, amounting, it is said, to 2,500 dollars; 1000 of which went to the *Dattu Mûdu*, and 100 each to the three elders of Lingie; 800 to the *Klána* of Súngie Ujong, and the remaining 400 to the *Rája adhi Rája*.

The deputed Menangkabowe prince, it is affirmed by the Rumbowe people, had the right of levying a duty, at Sempong, on the Lingie river, of two dollars per *bhar*, on tin passing that settlement from Súngie Ujong, which was afterwards given up as a subsistence to their *Iang de pertúan Múdas*. In consequence of the disavowal of this claim by the Súngie Ujong and Lingie chiefs, and other causes too long for detail, a war ensued in 1833, and a consequent blockade of the river by the *Iang de pertúan Múda*, SAYED SAABAN, at Sempong, still existing, and by which the trade of Súngie Ujong has suffered very materially.

Government.—Súngie Ujong was ruled, under the *Iang de pertúan Besàr*, by a *Panghúlú*, three *Súkús*, and *Raja adhi Raja*. The *Panghúlú*, has been already remarked, owes his title, *Klana Putra*, to one of the kings of Johor. He now refuses to acknowledge the control of the *Iang de pertúan Besàr*.

BANDHA'RA SEKUDAI is supposed to be the first chief invested with this title; and regarding his origin, a long tradition was related to me by the present *Raja adhi Raja*, the abstract of which amounts to this, viz. "In ancient times, one of the princesses of Súngie Ujong having had the presumption to laugh at the naked state of a *Batin* of the Jacoons, incurred his resentment, and was forcibly compelled to follow him through thicket and brake, until moved with compassion, this *sans culotte maître de danse* broke the spell and married her.

"The offspring of this sylvan union is said to be SEKUDAI: from whom descend the *Panghúlús* of Súngie Ujong"

In all popular traditions of rude nations, there is more or less of truth to be gathered; and in absence of written and other historical evidence, such testimony ought not to be entirely neglected, and set aside as valueless; though frequently ridiculous, and mingled up with matter known to be incredible and void of truth. We need not instance here the works of the early poets of Greece and Rome.

It is certain, that to this day, in Súngie Ujong, Johole, and Jompole, the twelve *Batins*, or chiefs of the savage tribes, have a considerable share in the election of the *Panghúlús* of these states, though there is not now apparent any permanent mark of connexion, either social or religious, between the Malays and these aborigines.

As *Káfirs* and infidels they are despised by the Malays, but superstitiously dreaded. Converts are made to *Islàm*; but slavery, as far as my observation extends, is their lot.

A few years ago, the late *Panghúlú* of Súngie Ujong, *Klana* LEHER, died, leaving two nephews, KAWAL and BHAIR. It is an ancient custom prevailing in the interior, and, I believe, generally throughout Malayan nations, than when a chief dies, his successor must be elected on the spot, and previous to the interment of the corpse, (which is not, unfrequently, protracted through the observance of this usage to a considerable length of time,) otherwise the election does not hold good.*

* In consequence of this, the present Sultán of Johor's younger brother was elected during the absence of the elder brother, whose claims were subsequently acknowledged by the British.

The following are the traditional lines, or *Serápa*, in which this custom has been handed down in Súngie Ujong.

SERAPA.

Amar-nia pendék langkah nia panjang ;	Short has been his life, though long his stride !
Sádah sampei Kahándak Allah,	When the will of God has arrived,
Hándak berqabúr ditannah mérah,	The grave shall be dug in the red earth :
Sa-hári hilang, Sa-hári bertánnam,	In one day lost, in one-day planted,
Sa-hári ber-tamboh, Sa hári palihára.	In one-day sprung up, in one-day cherished.

Now it happened that KAWAL was absent at the time of *Panghúlú* LEHER'S death. The three *Súkús* and one of the twelve *Batins* took advantage of BHAIR'S being on the spot, elected him, and buried the body of the deceased chief. Against this proceeding, the *Raja adhi Raja*, and the remainder of the elective body, the eleven *Batins*, protested ; a war ensued, which terminated in 1828, pretty much as it began. KAWAL however, by virtue of the suffrages of eleven out of the twelve *Batins*, and by the support of the *Raja adhi Raja*, is generally considered the legitimate chief.

He resides at Pantoi, a village on the left bank of the Lingie river, about 40 miles from the village of Lingie. I had an interview with him at the latter place in 1833.

His features are regular and pleasing ; but their expression conveys an idea of indecision and imbecility, probably increased by the immoderate use of opium, to which he was formerly much addicted ; the whole tenor of his conversation and manner evinced plainly how completely he was in the leading strings of his adviser, the wily KAATAS, the *Dattu Múda* of Lingie, who accompanied him.

His dress manifested a disposition to finery, consisting of a gaudy red *baju*, or surcoat, flowered with yellow ; a broad crimson sash thrown round his waist, suspending several weapons of Malayan fashion ; a *Battik* handkerchief with the bicornute tie, and a plaid silk *sarong*, resembling the tartan worn by the Highlanders, descending to his knees ; underneath the plaid he wore short embroidered trowsers.

In the left-hand slash of his close vest of purple broad cloth, which was lined with light-green silk, and adorned with silk lace and small round buttons of gold filagree, lay a watch of an antique shape, to which were appended a gold chain and seals. He wore his hair long, and it was very palpable to two of the five senses that he, like DEMOSTHENES in the composition of his orations, had not spared the oil in the arrangement of his tresses.

Raja adhi Raja.—Next to the *Panghúlú* ranks the *Raja adhi Raja*. The jurisdiction of this officer is confined to the river, and its navigation. The office and title, as would appear from the inscription on the seal, were renewed or granted to his ancestors by MUHAMMED JALIL, Sultán of Johore, A. H. 1211. (A. D. 1796-7.)

The present *Raja adhi Raja* is a young man, of an extremely prepossessing address and person.

Súkús.—There are only three *Sukus* in Súngie Ujong. The *Raja adhi Raja* may be perhaps considered as occupying the place of a fourth *Súkú* in councils.

The functions of the *Súkús* are similar to those already described, as possessed by the former *Ampat Suku* of Nanning. Their titles are *Dattu Mantri Jumahad, Dattu Mendaliki*, and *Dattu Maharaja Inda*. The tribes of which they are the heads, are those of Sa Melongang, Bodoanda, and Tannah Dattar.

Lingie.—The village of Lingie proper, in contradistinction to the settlement of Qualla Lingie, which is within the Company's territory, at the mouth of the river, is a dependency of Súngie Ujong.

It is situated high up the right branch of the river, and consisted, in 1832, when I visited the place, of a straggling collection of upwards of 100 houses. The *Pankalangs* of Pemátang, Passir, Cúndang, Dúrian, and Mángis, may be styled the wharfs of this little entrepôt, for the produce of the Súngie Ujong mines, and the articles brought up for barter. Many of the houses have been pillaged and burnt in the subsequent disturbances.

The establishment of Lingie is of recent date. Between 50 and 60 years ago, six individuals, subjects of Rumbowe, (but originally from Rhio) removed from Rumbowe to a place on the Malacca coast, between Tanjong Kling and Qualla Lingie, called Kúbú Achi (the fort of Achin;) where, according to local tradition, the Achinese erected a work during one of their expeditions against the Sultan of Malacca. Be that as it may, they had commenced the clearing of the jungle, when one of their number was crushed on the spot by the fall of a tree.

This his companions regarded as a supernatural prohibition to settling there, and quitting the place, passed up the river to the present spot; where, with the permission of the Súngie Ujong chief, they finally established themselves. Their names were HAMAN, MAHMUD, JAHIUDDIN, LUBBYE, JUMAN, and KA'DIR ALI.

HAMAN was appointed head of the little colony, by the title of *Dattu Múda*, and his four companions, as elders. Of these only one now survives, MAHMUD, who is a hale old man of 70.

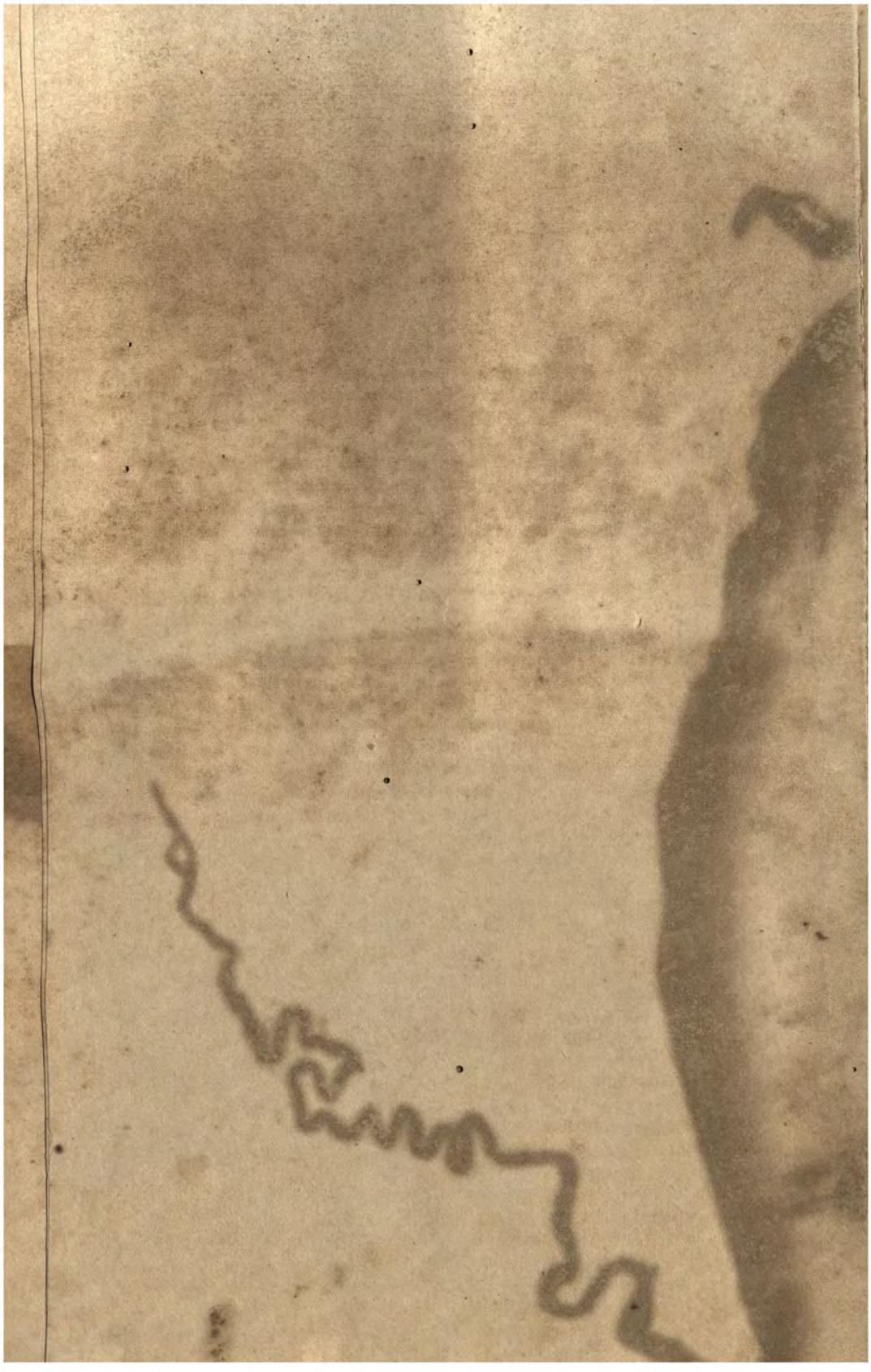
HAMAN was succeeded by his son-in-law the present *Dattu Múda* MAHOMED AATAS, more commonly called KAA'TAS; and the three deceased elders, by HAJI CASIM, HAJI MUHAMMED, and INCHI SALIHUDDIN. This last chief was killed in the disturbances at the close of 1833.

KAA'TAS, the leading character in Súngie Ujong, is a bony muscular personage in the prime of life; tall in stature for a Malay, and of erect carriage.

His features are harsh and decided; his dress plain and simple. In character, he is selfish, crafty, persevering, and gifted with some foresight; a quality by no means common among Malays.

He possesses unbounded influence over the weak and sensual *Klána*; and it is said that his ambition extends to the undivided sway of Súngie Ujong, and the monopolies of the duties on tin. The opposition of the Rumbowe chiefs, with whom he is at present at deadly feud, and the Malay popular antipathy to innovation and deviation from ancient usage, or as they term it, the "*Addat Zeman Dhúlú*," the "*Addat Dattu Nenek*," &c. will prove considerable obstacles in the attainment of his wishes.

KAA'TAS has, on various occasions, evinced an inimical disposition to the English Government. [*Journal of the Asiatic Society, September*, 1835.]



PLAN
of
PRINCE of WALES ISLAND
and the
Territories on the opposite shore ceded thereto
called the Province of Point Wellesley.

Scale of Miles
Fort 8 6 4 2 0 1 2 3

Note. The Districts according to the Collector's Office Books are coloured with various light colours, and these same arranged by the Police (under each Constable,) are marked so .....

Pulo Tikus
Tanjong Tokong
Telok Ayer Raja District
Telok Ayer Raja
Jaladong District
Jaladong
Ayer Itam
Ayer Itam Dist.
Sungei Ruma
Sungei Pinang
Pinang
Garden Estate
Mr. Phillips
Mr. Macalister
Mr. Morgan
Batu Lanchang
Batu Lanchang Dist.
Glugor District
Glugor
Sungei Glugor
Batu Ubam
Sungei Dua
Sungei Nibong
Sungei Nibong Dist.
Mr. Barney
Main Guard
Road to James Town
James Town
Scotts R.
Sungei Kluang
Pulo Jeraja
Sungei Tiram
Sungei Nipah
Sungei Batu-mau
Telok Tempuyak
Batu Uban Dist.
Mr. Phillips
Pulo Rimau
Pulo Kandi or Saddle Island
Pulo Tikus Dist.
Tanjong Tokong Dist.
Reservoir
Fort Cornwallis
George Town
Gun Battery
Prangin Dist.
Sungei Rusa
Sungei Pinang Dist.
Sungei Ruma Dist.
Sungei Kluang Dist.
Sungei Tiram Dist.
Sungei Batu-mau Dist.
Telok Tempuyak Dist.
Batu Uban Dist.
Sungei Nibong Dist.
Sungei Dua Dist.
Glugor Dist.
Batu Lanchang Dist.
Mr. Macalister
Mr. Phillips
Garden Estate
Sungei Ruma
Mr. Barney
Main Guard
Road to James Town
Road to Sungei Glugor
Tanjong Bungah
Tanjong Bungah Dist.
Pirate R.
Sungei Batu-mau
Telok Kumbar
Telok Kumbar Dist.
Telok Tempuyak
Batu Uban
Sungei Glugor
Sungei Nipah
Sungei Tiram
Pulo Jeraja
Scotts R.
James Town
Sungei Nibong
Sungei Dua
Batu Lanchang
Mr. Phillips
Mr. Macalister
Mr. Morgan
Sungei Pinang
Prangin
Pinang Dist.
Garden Estate
Sungei Ruma
Mr. Barney
Main Guard
Road to James Town
Road to Sungei Glugor
Tanjong Bungah
Pirate R.
Sungei Batu-mau
Telok Kumbar
Telok Tempuyak
Pulo Rimau
Pulo Kandi or Saddle Island
Wellesley
Province
Sungei Tumbus
Kwalla Bakah
Pinang
Kwalla Bakah R.
Telak Ayer Tawar
Labu Bunting
Permatang Kuching
Ramie
Sungei Pugu
Samagaya dalam
Bagan Jermal
Lorkan
Friends Farmers Residence
Kota
Bagan Lalang
Tanjong Putus
Bukit Jalutong
Sungei Ipoh
Bagan Nior
Bagan Sarog
Duraka
Prye Town
Permatang Pauh
Duraka Prye
Sungei Sunak
Labu Buntar
Duraka Jara
Bukit Tang-ah
Jara River
Sungei Ara
Sungei Ara Dist.
Sungei Ara Dist.

OUTLINE OF POLITICAL RELATIONS WITH THE NATIVE STATES ON THE EASTERN AND WESTERN COASTS, MALAYAN PENINSULA.

By Lieut. T. J. Newbold, A. D. C. to Brigadier General Wilson C. B.

Note.—It will be convenient to preface, that the subjoined outline follows the geographical order of the States on both coasts of the peninsula; commencing on the north-west with *Quédah*, and proceeding southerly down the Straits of *Malacca* to *Point Romania*—thence turning northerly along the eastern coast up to *Patáni*.

The following is the order of the States, with their supposed boundaries and estimate of population, chiefly derived from native sources in 1835.

*Quédah**—from the *Trang* river, in 7° 20' N. to the *Krian*, 5° 10' N. Population, 25,000.

Pérak—from the *Krian* to the *Rúnkúp*, in about 3° 59' N. Population, 35,000.

Salangóre—from the *Rúnkúp* to the *Lingie*, in about 2° 35' N. Population, 12,000.

Malacca—(British territory,) from the *Lingie* to the *Cassang*. Population, (1833-1834,) 34,333.

Johóre—from the *Cassang* to the *Sedilly*, on the East coast, 2° 15' N. Population, 25,000.

Paháng—from the *Sedilly* to the *Kemámang*, in 4° 15' N. Population, 40,000.

Kemámang—is situated a mile or two up the river, little or no territory along the coast. Population, 1,000.

Tringáu—from the *Kemámang* to the *Basut*. Population, 30,000.

Calántan—from the *Basut* to the *Barúna*. Population, 50,000.

Patáni—from the *Barúna* to *Tana* in 7° 20' N. Population, 54,000.

The population of *Pinang* in 1833 amounted to 40,032—that of Province Wellesley to 9,553,—and that of *Singapore*, in 1834, to 26,392.

Quédah, Ligóre, Patáni, Merdilous, Junk Ceylon.—The upper states of the peninsula, viz. *Quédah, Ligóre, Patáni, Merdilous* and the island of *Junk Ceylon*, are considered in the treaty concluded by Mr. BURNEY, with *Siam*, in 1826, as provinces of that empire,—a concession to that power, scarcely just and politic.

to *Siam*. They also engaged that they would make arrangements for the ex-king of *Quédah* to go and live in some other country*, and not at *Pinang* or *Prye*, or in *Perak*, *Salangore*, or any Burmese country. In case the ex-king did not remove, the Siamese were at liberty to levy the export duty upon paddy and rice in *Quédah*.

With Quédah for Pulo-Pinang or Prince of Wales Island.—*Pulo-Pinang* was formally ceded to the British on the 12th September, 1786, for the annual sum of 6,000 Spanish dollars, by the father of the present ex-king of *Quédah* through the agency of Mr. LIGHT, to whom it had been presented the preceding year as a marriage portion with the Malay king's daughter.

In 1802, Sir GEORGE LEITH finally arranged that the English Company should pay annually to His Majesty of *Purlis* and *Quédah* 10,000 Spanish dollars, as long as the English should continue in possession of *Pulo Pinang* and *Province Wellesley*. This last is the line of coast, on the opposite shore, on the main, that lies between the river side of *Qualla Muda* on the north and *Qualla Krian* on the south; measuring inland from the sea side 60 orlongs.

The Company are bound to protect this coast from all enemies, robbers and pirates that may attack it by sea from north or south.

The treaty consists of fourteen articles, and terminates with the following remarkable paragraph: "These fourteen articles being settled and concluded between his Majesty and the English Company, the countries of *Purlis* and *Quédah* and *Pulo-Pinang* shall be as one country; and whoever shall depart or deviate from any part of this agreement, the Almighty punish and destroy him; he shall not prosper."

Pinang was formed into a regular government in 1805.

Perak.—*Perak* is the next state, on the west coast, south of *Quédah*. A notice of its relations has been already given.

Salangore.—A treaty of commercial alliance, precisely similar to that entered into with *Perak*, was concluded with *Salangore* in 1818 by the British Commissioner, Mr. CRACROFT.

By Major BURNEY'S treaty with *Siam* 1826, the British are bound not allow the State of *Salangore* to attack and disturb that of *Perak*. The Siamese are likewise bound by the same treaty not to go and attack or disturb *Salangore*. In 1786 the Dutch dictated a treaty to the then Rája (IBRAHIM), by which the latter was compelled to acknowledge the sovereignty of the Dutch, who were then in possession of *Malacca*, and to hold his kingdom from them as a fief. In 18[illegible] the Dutch wished to renew this treaty, but the *Salangore* chief refused, relying on his newly acquired relations† with the British.

Johore for the occupation of the island of Singapore.—I[illegible] 1818 a commercial treaty was entered into, by the then Resident at *Malacca*, Major F[illegible]QUHAR, with the monarch of *Johore*, who was acknowledged by the Dutch; viz. *Sri Sultan* ABDULRAHMAN SHAH. Since that time, however, the elder brother of this prince [illegible] up and acknowledged by British policy as being the rightful successor, and in order to obtain a legal title to the island of *Singapore*, which, as will be shewn, was ceded to the Company by the latter. By Major FARQUHAR'S treaty with ABDURRAHMAN SHAH, mutual liberty of navigation and commerce in the ports and dominions of *Johore*, *Pahang*, *Lingi*[illegible], *Rhio*, &c. was secured to British subjects, or persons under the protection of the Company, on the footing of the subjects of the most favored nation[illegible] subjects [illegible] other enjoying similar advantages and privileges in the harbour of F[illegible] wallis, and in a[illegible] places dependent on the British Government of *Pinang*.

Sir STAMFORD [illegible] ter to Sir ROBE[illegible]RT H. INGLIS, states that the Dutch no sooner obtained [illegible] *ca*, (in Septem[illegible]ber, 1828, the month after Major FARQUHAR [illegible] SHAH had [illegible] been concluded,) than, notwithstanding our tr[illegible] ommuni[illegible]cated for their infor[illegible] [illegible]ession of

Malacca till the close of 1835, w[illegible] for *Delli*[illegible]

[illegible]rlike and e[illegible] g colony, [illegible] to a weak pl[illegible] reparing [illegible] k from [illegible] year. The pre[illegible] [illegible]ise. Sultá[illegible]

Malacca, they sent an overpowering force to *Rhio*, where ABDURRAHMAN resided; declared the chief to be their vassal, treated our negotiations with him contemptuously, and dictated a treaty which excluded the British trade from the port, &c.

In consequence partly of the delivering up of a place, so advantageously situated as *Malacca*, to *Holland*, it was deemed politic by the Marquis of HASTINGS, in order to protect the British trade, and to secure one of the two passages to the Eastern Archipelago and China, to attempt the improvement of our relations with *Achin* at the northern entrance, and to form a settlement at *Rhio*, an island advantageously situated near the southern extremity. For these and other political purposes, Sir STAMFORD RAFFLES was appointed and associated with the Resident at *Malacca*, Major FARQUHAR, by his Lordship, and proceeded on his mission from Bengal in December 1818.

On arriving in the Straits he found *Malacca* and *Rhio* in the hands of the Dutch as already alluded to;—consequently, *Holland* at this time held in her hands the keys of both those gates to the China Seas, the Straits of *Malacca* and *Sunda*.

The *Carimon* isles and that of *Singapore* were almost the only eligible spots now left. The latter, with the concurrence of Major FARQUHAR, and, some say, at the suggestion of Captain ROSS, was judiciously selected by Sir STAMFORD, and the British flag there hoisted on the 20th February, 1810. The new settlement was placed in charge of Major FARQUHAR; who, from his great popularity among the Malays, and local experience, was admirably fitted for the office.

It appears that Sir STAMFORD when *off Singapore* was visited by the *Tumungóng* of *Johóre*, a chief inimical to the interests of Holland, and by no means friendly to the claims of the Sultan newly elected by the Dutch, ABDURRAHMAN SHAH, with whom a reluctant and exclusive treaty, as far as regarded the commerce of other European powers, had been concluded by Dutch agents at *Rhio*, which gave them possession of that island. The *Tumungóng* represented to Sir STAMFORD, that the British were still at liberty to establish themselves on the island of *Singapore* under the sanction of the legitimate sovereign, whom he considered to be the elder brother, HUSSAIN MAHOMED SHAH, whose lawful claims had been set aside by the Dutch in favor of those of his younger brother, ABDURRAHMAN SHAH, with whom they had concluded the arbitrary treaty already mentioned.

As the recognition of HUSSAIN SHAH as lawful sovereign of *Johóre* was a necessary preliminary to treating with him, he has now invited over from *Rhio* to *Singapore* by the British Commissioners, and being acknowledged by the two hereditary elective officers of the empire, viz. the *Bandahara* of *Pahang* and the *Tumungóng* of *Johóre* as their lawful chief, was recognized and treated with as the legal sovereign by the Commissioners; who forthwith entered into arrangements for the immediate occupation of the port and the establishment of a settlement at *Singapore*, pending a reference to the Supreme Government.

By the arrangement with HUSSAIN SHAH, of the 26th June, 1810, which appears to have been rather loosely drawn up, it was decided that the British jurisdiction should extend only over a limited part of the island; viz.—from *Tanjong Mallang* on the west, to *Tanjong Kattang* on the east; and interiorly as far as cannon-shot range all round the factory. The council for the government of the island to be composed of the British Resident, the *Sultan* and the *Tumungong*.

This state of affairs continued with little alteration until 1824, when final arrangements for the entire cession of the island to the British were made, and a treaty of friendship and alliance concluded by the then Resident, Mr CRAWFURD, on the part of the Company, with their highnesses the *Sultan* and *Tumungong* of *Johóre*. This took place on the 2nd of August. By it the island of *Singapore*, together with the adjacent seas, straits and islets to the extent of ten geographical miles from the coast of *Singapore*, were given up in full sovereignty and property to the East India Company, their heirs and successors for ever.

The Company agreed, in consideration of this cession, to pay to the *Sultan* the sum of 33,200 Spanish dollars, together with a stipend during his natural life of 1,300 Spanish dollars per mensem; and to the *Tumungong* the sum of 26,000 Spanish dollars, and a monthly stipend of 700 Spanish dollars during his natural life.

In the event of the *Sultan* and the *Tumungong*, their heirs or successors, preferring to

reside permanently in any portion of their own estates. and to remove for that purpose from *Singapore*, the Company agreed to pay the *Sultan*, his heirs or successors, 10,000 Spanish dollars; and to the *Tumungong*, his heir or successor, the sum of 15,000 Spanish dollars. The *Sultan* and the *Tumungong*, in return, relinquishing for themselves, their heirs and successors, to the Company, their heirs, &c. for ever, all right and title to every description of immoveable property, whether in land, gardens, houses, &c. of which they might be possessed within the island or its dependencies at the time of their withdrawal from *Singapore*, for the purpose of residing permanently within their own states.

It was also mutually stipulated, that neither party should be bound to interfere in the internal concerns of the other Government, or in any political dissensions or wars which might arise within their respective territories, nor to support each other by force of arms against any third party whatsoever. The *Sultan* and *Tumungong* bound themselves that, as long as they continued to reside within the island of *Singapore*, or drew their respective monthly stipends from the Company, they would not enter into any alliance, nor maintain correspondence with any foreign power or potentate without the knowledge and consent of the Company, its heirs, &c.; to maintain a free and unshackled trade every where within their dominions, and to admit the trade and traffic of the British nation into all the ports and harbours of the kingdom of *Johore* and its dependencies on the terms of the most favored nations. Such are the conditions under which the British hold *Singapore* from the *Sultan* of *Johore*.

Pahang.—*Pahang*, though virtually independent, is nominally a dependency of *Johore*; governed by one of its elective officers, the *Bandahara*. It has consequently been included in the relations with that state.

Tringanu and Calantan.—By the 12th article of Major BURNEY'S treaty it is stipulated, that *Siam* shall not go and obstruct or interrupt commerce in the states of *Tringanu* and *Calantan*. English merchants and subjects shall have trade and intercourse in future with the same facility and freedom as they have heretofore had; and the English shall not go and molest, attack or disturb those States upon any pretence whatsoever.

Patani.—*Patani* has already been adverted to as having become a province of *Siam*, on which empire it borders.

Present condition of the Malay States.—Having traversed both the eastern and western coasts of the Peninsula, I will briefly advert to the political condition of the Malay States as it existed at the time of my quitting the Straits in 1835. The Siamese retained, in spite of their struggles, firm hold of *Quedah* and *Patani*, which are still groaning under the yoke. The rightful Raja of *Patani* remained a close prison in *Siam*, and his country in a state of depopulation and distress under the Siamese governor. *Tringanu* and *Calantan*, being less under a withering influence of the monarch of the White Elephant, are in a more prosperous condition, carrying on a considerable trade with *Singapore* under their own princes. Both *Tringanu* and *Calantan* have been lately menaced by *Siam*, in violation of their treaty with the British, by which they are interdicted from interfering with these States. *Kemamang* is a small state lying between *Tringanu* and *Pahang*: of the former it is nominally a tributary, but bears a *mala fama* on the score of piracy,—a practice said to be countenanced by its chief. The pirates are chiefly tempted by the prows trading from *Patani*, *Calantan* and *Tringanu* to the port of *Singapore*. *Pahang* was in a peaceable and flourishing state under its *Bandahara*, carrying on a profitable trade with *Singapore*, chiefly in gold-dust. The shores of *Johore*, though nominally the possessions of our stipendiary the Sultan, are miserably neglected; the creeks, bays, islets, and rivers of this extensive tract affording safe shelter to the hordes of pirates that threaten to extirpate the native commerce of *Singapore*. The states in the interior of *Malacca* were, by the last accounts, still in anarchy and confusion, arising from the fierce feuds and broils which have for some years past been raging among the native chiefs. *Salangore* was labouring under serious apprehensions of an attack from *Siac* on the opposite shore of *Sumatra*, the chief of which was said to be collecting a fleet of *prahus* for that purpose. The Raja of *Salangore* was employed in repairing his fort, and remounting the numerous guns that lay scattered on and around the hill on which the fort stands. *Perak* was quiet, and occupied in agriculture and the tin trade.

Our old ally, the ex-king of *Quedah* and the Sultan of *Johore* were living on their handsome pensions at *Malacca*. The latter has since died (September 2nd, 1835). Near the close of 1835 no steps had been taken with regard to the succession. According to treaty, the pension was to expire with the Sultan; but out of consideration to his widow and children, an allowance of 100 Spanish dollars per mensem has been granted her by the Straits Government, pending a reference to Bengal.

The late Sultan first married with the present *Bandahara* of *Pahang*'s daughter; by whom he has no issue. By his second wife, the present *Tumungong* of *Singapore*'s sister, he had a son, surnamed *Tuanku besar*, who married one of the *Tumungong*'s daughters, but died without issue. His third wife was a woman of low birth, by whom he has a son now living at *Singapore*, named ABDAL JALIL. He is about 21 years of age. Not being of noble blood by his mother's side, his claims to the succession are not considered good by the Malays. By the fourth and present wife, who is of royal extraction, he has two sons, fine lads,—and two girls; they reside with their mother at *Malacca*. The eldest of the boys is considered the late Sultan's heir.

The ex-king of *Quedah*, I believe, left *Malacca* towards the end of 1835 for *Delli* in *Sumatra*. He had, in 1833, expressed to me his determination of doing so, being disgusted at the answers given to his earnest and repeated applications for redress against the Siamese, and to his request for permission to reside at *Pinang*, which had then been recently refused by Lord WILLIAM BENTINCK. He said that he had many friends at *Delli*, and hinted at the possibility of his making a final attempt to expel, with their assistance, the Siamese from his dominions. *Perak* and the whole Malay population of *Quedah*, and probably that of *Patani*, are greatly under his influence; and it would require but little persuasion to excite the whole of the neighbouring Malayan States to take up arms against their haughty oppressors.

With regard to British influence over the Malay States, it might unquestionably be much greater than it is; and indeed we might possess almost sovereign power over the whole peninsula, were we only to exert the political means already under our control. Of later days the fashion has been to treat with them as independent powers; while the chiefs themselves, from a combination of circumstances too long for detail here, are for the most part with difficulty and unwillingly brought to consider themselves so.

Experience has shewn the necessity of the existence of a predominating power capable and willing to afford effectual mediation, to which these divided States may look up in their frequent disputes.

The Dutch during their ascendancy were fully alive to, and took every advantage of, the influence their commanding position gave them; as the numberless treaties concluded with almost every petty chief on the peninsula and in the Archipelago fully evince; but, by a series of tyrannical and impolitic acts, particularly the disgraceful system of forced labour, they alienated the affections of a generous race of men, and lost, as a natural consequence, the fruits of their able, though selfish negotiations and political alliances. Britain now occupies a prouder situation with regard to these Eastern States than Holland ever did. Two princes, representives of the two most noble dynasties, *Quedah* and *Johore*, derive a handsome subsistence from British bounty. British colonies occupy, and carry on an extensive commerce from the site of those two ancient seats of Malayan empire, *Malacca* and *Singapore*; while British ships retain undisputed possession of the seas. It alone remains for a wise and liberal Government to consolidate and uphold the moral influence of public opinion,—that extraordinary talisman by which is held together the greatest of colonial empires. In the face of such considerations, deterred by the fallacious theories of non-intervention and non-territorial extension, we are incurring the heavy moral responsibility of permitting so great an extent of power, delegated, no doubt, for philanthropic and humane purposes, to lie inert,—a power which, if wielded with discretion, would not only strengthen our political and commercial relations in this part of the globe, but effect the decided amelioration, and, eventually, the extirpation of the evils under which these oppressed States now groan.

The absence of the strong hand of power, guided by the dictates of humanity and common sense, to settle the endless feuds of the native chiefs, which are too often excited and supported by the criminal cupidity of native merchants and others residing under our authority (as in the case of the late massacre at *Lukut*, and the disturbances still prevailing at

Lingie) ; the morbid dread of intervention, exemplified in our late treaties, and in our systematical non-support of the native established sovereigns in just authority over their rebellious vassals ; the worse than uselessness of British law, applied to a state of society for which it was never framed, are, it is my firm conviction, the remote causes of the present system of piracy now prevailing; of the numerous unpunished murders and outrages which disgrace not only the territories of Malayan chiefs, but also territories lying nominally under the protection of the British flag ; and of the impoverished and disorganized condition of the Malays in general.

The resources of the soil have been almost hermetically sealed to the occupier by the frequent and protracted feuds already alluded to. Hence the peasant, driven from his village and lawful means of subsistence, and tempted by the smooth seas, the favorable navigation and shelter from pursuit afforded by the unexplored rivers, creeks, and numerous islets of the Straits, and by the charms of a life so congenial to the free and restless spirit of a Malay is induced to scour the water for a precarious subsistence by fishing or plunder, or by both,, as opportunity chance to present.*

I conclude with a few suggestions touching the suppresion of piracy now existing to so alarming an extent in the Straits. Its remote causes, I have already remarked, are alone to be removed by the adoption of a more enlightened policy towards the native powers ; and, it may be added, by the gradual spread of civilization and diffusion of useful knowledge.

1st. The employment of one or more small armed steamers, together with eight or ten large boats, of the fastest possible construction, (particularly for rowing ;) manned *fully* with Europeans, and well armed for both close and distant fight.

2nd. A discreet *surveillance* over the conduct of the present *Tumungong* of *Johore* ; who is more than suspected of being the mainspring of the daring system of piracy which has so long been an opprobrium to the eastern extremity of the Straits. A threat of withdrawing the stipend he enjoys gratuitously from the British Government might be useful.

3rd. A careful survey of both coasts of the peninsula, the unexplored rivers, creeks and islets. This, in addition to other obvious advantages, will afford opportunities of observing the character and pursuits of the natives inhabiting the sea-shore and banks of rivers, who are always more or less in league with the pirates, and of collecting information of piratical haunts and places of *rendezvous*.

4th. The suspected native chiefs should be peremptorily called upon to lend their assistance and information : particularly the chiefs of *Kemamang, Salangore, Perak,* and *Calantan*. And lastly, the cooperation of the Dutch Government should be secured.

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* The *prahus* used by Malay pirates are from eight to ten tons burthen, extremely well manned and remarkably fast, particularly with the paddles commonly used. They are generally armed with swivels on their bows, centre, and stern of small calibre, but long range. When preparing to attack, strong bulwarks of wood called *Apilans* are erected, behind which the crew ensconce themselves, fighting with their long guns until their prey is disabled ; or till the *gong* sound the signal for boarding. But what they mainly depend upon for safety and success is their skill in paddling, (Malay pirates scarcely ever attack except during the lull between the land and sea breeze, or in a calm,) the swiftness of their boats, and their knowledge of the intricate channels, between the islands, or over the bars of the rivers into which they generally contrive to escape, baffling their pursuers, and often leaving them aground on one of the numerous shoals or mud-banks which their own superior knowledge enables them to avoid.

The *prahus* of the *Sulu* and *Illanun* pirates are much larger and better equipped than those which commonly infest the Straits. The Malay pirates make their attacks and move in small fleets of from six to twenty *prahus*.

During the months of October, November, December, and January, they will be found cruizing up and down the west coast of the peninsula and the opposite shore of *Sumatra*. From June to the end of September, they are often to be seen among the islets south of *Singapore*, and in the creeks and rivers of the *Johore* coast. February, March, and April are spent in fishing, collecting seaweed, and preparing for future piratical depredations.

The crews are armed with boarding spears some of very great length, krisses, Malay hatchets and swords (the *parang* and *Ideywang*), muskets, blunderbusses, and a variety of missiles, such as sticks pointed and burnt at the end, stones, &c.

The most noted haunts for pirates on the western coast of the peninsula (according to information derived from a Malay of *Salangore*, who had in his youth exercised the profession himself) are the *Bunting, Aroe, Cocab, Pisang Dinding* and *Sambilang isles;* those on the *Salangore coast*, and the islets between Cape Rachado and the *Lingie* river;—the rivers *Mirbowe, Birman, Perak, Putch, Koroo, Muar, Rio Formosa*, or the *Battu Pahat* river, and formerly the *Lingie* river : the Straits of *Calang* and *Dryon*, Point *Romania* and its vicinity, and the *Carimon* isles to the south.

On the eastern coast are the creeks and small rivers of *Johore* up to *Pahang ;* the *Kemamang* river ; those of *Tringanu* and *Calantan*, also the islands of *Timiang, Pulo Tingie, Redang* and *Aor*.

SKETCH OF BORNEO,

BY DR. LEYDEN.

The great island of Borneo stretches from the fourth degree of south latitude to the 8th of north lat. and from the 150th to the 158th degree of long. being about 700 miles in length, and 500 in breadth; it lies almost in sight of Java. The shores of the island are generally covered with mud banks; the coasts are low and marshy, with small hills generally covered with wood. The centre swells with ranges of huge mountains, which are commonly denominated the Crystal Mountains, from the quantity of crystalline stones found there, and these are said to run in a north and south direction. At the foot of these mountains lies a large inland lake, which is termed a sea by the Dutch, and which is reported to be larger than the lake of Manilla. From this lake spring all the considerable rivers in Borneo, which are said to be more than a hundred in number. The island of Borneo, though uncommonly rich in gold, diamonds, camphor, and other valuable productions, and very fertile in the interior, yet from the indolence of the inhabitants, and the want of polity in the small states of the coast, is believed not to produce rice sufficient for its own consumption, and has been compelled to depend on Java. This however may in a great measure have proceeded from the general policy adopted by the Dutch.

The coasts of Borneo are occupied by a number of petty Mahometan states, none of which are of great antiquity. The original population of these is a mixture of Malays, Javanese, Bugis, and Macasars; but a small number of Arabs, and a very considerable number of Chinese are always to be found in them. The interior of Borneo is chiefly occupied by the numerous rude agricultural tribes of people termed *Dayak*, very few of whom have embraced the Moslem religion. The religion of the Dayak is little understood, though some of their usages have attracted notice from their singularity. In many places of the island, the possessions of the Dayak extend quite to the shore, as on a considerable part of the eastern coast, within the Straits of Macasar. There are considerable settlements of the Chinese along almost all the principal rivers of Borneo in the interior, and it is said that in some places they have attempted to acquire a species of independence. The lofty mountains ranged on the centre of Borneo, are represented as occupied by a people named Punams, in the very rudest state of savage life.

Of the Maritime Districts of BORNEO.

The maritime states of Borneo are chiefly the following: 1st, Borneo proper, 2d, Coti, 3d, Passir, 4th, Banjarmassing, 5th, Matan, 6th, Pontiana, 7th, Sambas.

1st. *Borneo*, properly pronounced Bruni, is generally reckoned a state of some antiquity, and is alluded to in the annals or legends of Malacca, as a proud independent state, by no means disposed to admit the sovereignty of any other kingdom. The inhabitants refer their origin to a traditionary emigration from Johore, but are ignorant of their own history, according to every account. Dalrymple, in his "Essays on the Sulus," published in the first volume of the Oriental Repertory, alledges that the Bornean empire not only extended

over that island but also over the Sūki and Philippines, in ancient times. I have been able to discover no traces of such dominion, and Dalrymple himself gives a list of the sovereigns of Borneo which he perused at Sulu, and which only recites six names before that of the reigning sovereign. Thus:

1—Meraham Tumbang Derumput.
2—De Pulow.
3—Bongso.
4—Abdul.
5—Hussein or De-luba.
6—Di Bornei or Appang.
7—Depertuan Seef-ed-din, the reigning prince.

Borneo, however, has some features of an ancient state, one of which is the high veneration for the authority of the prince, which is found in all the ancient Malay states, but among very few of those of late origin. The sultan accordingly maintains a higher degree of state and dignity than the greater part of Malay princes.

The dominions of Borneo proper are bounded on the west by the territories of Sambas, and on the east by the Malludu and other districts nominally subject to the Sulus. The state of Borneo consequently occupies the most northerly districts of the island of Borneo. Between Sambas and Borneo are situated a variety of small towns, such as *Serawa*, the piratical chief of which lately cut off the ship Commerce; *Klakka* and *Mokka*, the chiefs of which are denominated Pangerans, *Scribas* and *Palo*.

The government of Borneo is conducted, according to Mr. J. Jesse, by the sultan and a council of his principal officers, consisting of the *Bendahara*, the *De-gadong* or chief of the household, the *Tumongung*, the *Pa-muncha* or administrator, and the *Shabunder*. The law of the land is the *Undang undang Bruni*, which is said to be of some antiquity.

The river of Borneo is represented as navigable for a considerable way above the town for ships of great burden, but it is very narrow, and land-locked at the mouth, where it is about a quarter of a mile broad. The town of Borneo is built on posts on a marsh, and in the times of Valentyn, consisted of nearly 4,000 houses; it occupied both sides of the river, and is situated about ten miles from the mouth of it. The productions of Borneo capable of export, are gold dust, pearls, wax, birds' nests, camphor, and rice; and the general imports are tin, piece goods, and most of the products of Java. Borneo proper is one of the states on the island which grows rice sufficient for its own consumption. The camphor of Borneo is the best in the world; and the next to it in point of quality, is that of Baros, in Sumatra. The Borneo camphor does not exceed the annual quantity of 35 piculs of 125 lbs. which cost about 3,200 rix dollars. The camphor of Sumatra amounts to about twenty piculs, costing 2,200 rix dollars. A species of camphor is produced in Japan, from the leaves of a kind of laurel, which costs about fifty rix dollars per picul.

The cultivation of pepper was introduced into Borneo by the Chinese, between forty and fifty years ago. When Mr. Jesse, in 1774, the period of the original settlement of Balambangan, stipulated by treaty for the exclusive trade of pepper at Borneo, he found that not more than 4000 piculs were produced, and this cost about seventeen Spanish dollars per picul. I understand that the country still produces pepper equal at least to this specified quantity.

The trade between Borneo and the Chinese port Amoy, is very considerable. According to Forster, there were seven junks at Borneo in 1775. The return cargoes procured by the Chinese are chiefly camphor, sea slug, tortoise shell, birds' nests, clove bark, dammar-resin, a species of black wood which the Chinese work up into furniture, wax, agal-agal a species of sea weed which yields a gum or glue, sandal wood, ratans, and various barks used in dyeing.

The English were long in the habit of dealing at Borneo in piece goods to a small extent, taking their returns in pepper and gold dust; lately, however, the inhabitants have had a bad name, and are probably at present little acquainted with Europeans. Little intercourse and much jealousy subsisted between Borneo proper and our last settlement of Balambangan; and since that settlement was abandoned, they have certainly been occasionally guilty of piratical practices.

The Malay population of Borneo proper is distinguished for haughtiness and indolence. They are not, however, devoid of some arts, particularly that of casting brass cannon, in which they are skilful; this is also practiced at Palembang.

The period of the introduction of Islam into Borneo is not known, but it appears from the accounts of the Portuguese, that it was previous to 1530.

Of the districts in BORNEO *between* BORNEO PROPER *and* COTI.

The districts on the N. E. of Borneo are Pappal, Malludu, Manggi-dara and Tirun, the greatest part of which, on the sea coast, especially some time ago, were under the influence of Sulu. When we received the cession of Balambangan from the Sulus, they were supposed to have ceded to the English the whole of their influence in these districts.

Pappal. The district of Pappal lies adjacent to the dominions of Borneo proper, from which it is divided by the river of Ki-manis. The soil of the country is reckoned fertile, but lies generally uncultivated along the shore; it is full of stately trees, and the savannas abound in the species of black cattle termed lissang, and deer.

The productions of the coast are sago, rice, betel nut, cocoa nut oil, camphor, wax, with a small quantity of pepper and cinnamon. On the river Ki-manis the inhabitants are termed Idaan by Dalrymple, which I consider as only another name for Dayak, and these were formerly accustomed to trade to Java in their own prows. The rivers of Pangalet and Pappal are inhabited by Malays, as are likewise the districts of La-battuan, Inamnam, Manyatal, Patatan and Kinarut. The river Mangeabung is inhabited by Malays, but the river is not fit for navigation. The river Tavaran is reckoned navigable for boats as far as the central lake of Kini Balu; it is inhabited by Idaans, with a small colony of Chinese. *Abai* has a harbor sheltered from the westerly winds. Its river, with those of Tampasak, Lubak, and Ambung, together with Salaman and Pandasang, are inhabited by Malays. The river of Tampasak is also represented to come from the central lake of Kini Balu; after these come the rivers of Lu and Tabalulan, inhabited by the Idaans. Tampasak consists of about 200 houses. Tampasak and Tawarran rivers may be regarded as the northern entrances into the great lake of Kini Balu, which according to every account must be above 100 miles in circumference, and certainly communicates by means of its rivers with Banjarmassing. Its waters are represented as whitish, and in some places it is said to be only from five to six fathoms in depth.

Malludu comprehends the northern end of Borneo. It abounds in grain and provisions, and is reckoned well peopled in the interior by the Idaans. It has a deep bay, on the west side of which is situated the town and harbor of Barkoku. On the east side of the bay there are pearl banks. This deep bay is said to approach to within 40 or 50 miles of the lake Kini Balu, and the mountain Kini Balu appears rising abruptly to a stupendous height on the west side, while on the east it slopes gradually down to the low lands of Sandakan. The commodities which Malludu produces are nearly the same as Borneo proper. The powerful tribes of the Idaan or Dayak, who occupy the country around the great lake, and have a sovereign of their own, who is not dependent on the Malays, are represented as averse to commerce. This, however, is probably a misrepresentation, as they certainly have a communication with Banjarmassing. Malludu abounds particularly in ratans and clove bark, but its pearls are not of so fine a water as the Sulu pearl.

Manggi-dara is the most easterly district of Borneo, and extends itself towards the Sulu Islands in a long narrow point, named Unsang. Here the Spaniards formerly had a settlement which they relinquished to the Sulus, but the woods still abound in cattle, the breed of which was left by them. The eastern part of Unsang likewise abounds in wild elephants, which are said to be found on no other part of Borneo.

Manggi-dara produces gold, birds' nests, wax, dammar, and the species of red wood named Laka, with some camphor. Considerable quantities of sea slug and tortoise shell may likewise be procured from the numerous shoals and rocks and inlets along the coast.

Paitan, the name of a river and bay, produces a considerable quantity of camphor and

clove bark, but the coast is very shoaly and foul, as are the bays of Lubuk and Sugut. The river of Sugut descends from the lake of Kini Balu. East of Lubuk lies the island of Bahelatulis, which forms the entrance of the bay of Sandakan, which, is about five leagues deep, and has three harbors, that of Buli-luko in the west, Segalihut on the south-west, and Damendung on the south. The bay of Sandakan abounds in large and small timber, stones, lime for building, and has plenty of water. The Sulus have a settlement on the small island of Lubak-kan, whence they carry on a trade with the interior of Borneo. Great abundance of sea slug and agar, or eagle wood, is procured in this vicinity. The promontory of Unsang, which is by no means well exhibited, terminates in a bluff point, at the north-east part of which is a small island named Tambisan. Between Sandakan and Tambisan are at least thirty large rivers, all of which, except Mariak, are branches of the great river Kinabantangan, which descends from the lake of Kini Balu. The most considerable of all these are the most westerly, especially Towsan-abai. or the meeting of waters, so called from being the conflux of several large streams. The bar of this river is shallow, but the coast is clear of banks. The north coast of Unsang has many bays, but none sheltered against westerly winds. The harbors of Towsan Duyon and Mamuyong, however, deserve to be mentioned. On the south coast of Unsang are the rivers and bays of Sibait Tunku, Malaburg, Babatu, and Saturung, which are all small. Much sea slug however is procured on this coast. The bay of Jiong is very large, and contains several islands and shoals; and on the hills around it are several caves which produce birds' nests. From Jiong to the river Tawaw the country is broken by creeks and rivers into numerous inlets.

Tirun or *Tedong* is the common name of a large district on the east of Borneo, which has never been much frequented by European shipping. The coast of Tirun is in general a low swamp overgrown with mangroves, inhabited by a savage people addicted to piracy, and named Orang Tedong or Tirun, who have never embraced the religion of Islam. They are probably like the Idaan, a tribe of Dayaks. Dalrymple observes in his Orient. Repert. vol. I, page 552, that the Tirun and Idaan languages are equally foreign to the Sulu and each other. The matter, however, has never been properly investigated. The mountains of the Idaan are at a great distance toward the interior. The Tirun country produces a much greater quantity of birds' nests than all other regions of the east. The whole country is covered with sago trees, which afford the chief subsistence of the inhabitants. The rivers are numerous, large, and navigable. Besides sago and birds' nests, the chief produce of the country are gold, wax, honey, canes, ratans, mats, sea slug, and a species of gulega and bezoar. Some say it also produces salt petre. The river Sibocu, its northern boundary, is said to have thirty campongs on its banks, and about 1000 people, and to produce about 40 piculs of birds' nests and 100 of wax, besides sago, honey, canes, ratans, and mats. This river is large, but there are shoals at the entrance. Sambagung is a smaller river which produces in its environs about 20 piculs of birds' nests. The river Lidong or Lilidong is large, and its district populous, being estimated by the Sulus to contain 10,000 inhabitants It produces about 25 piculs of birds' nests. The bay of Salawang or Sieatae produces about 100 piculs of black birds' nests.

Balangan or *Barunyan* is a campong of some consequence, situated on a large river of that name It was formerly subject to Passir, but at present it is said to have a chief of its own. It produces a great quantity of gold, and also earth oil.

Barow or *Barong* is an independent state governed by its own sultan, and produces a great number of birds' nests and other Tirun products, such as wax and sea slugs. This country has a considerable trade in cocoa nuts with Tuaju in Celebes. The river is situated in the bottom of a deep bay. The small state of Kuran is said to lie on the same river as Barow. It is likewise governed by a chief who assumes the title of sultan, and who is frequently at enmity with the sultan of Barow, though the subjects of both are chiefly Orang Tedong. About the year 1770, according to Forster, while these two princes were at war, one of them called the Sulus to his assistance. The Sulus seized the opportunity, making both princes prisoners, and after ravaging the country carried them both to Sulu, where they were released on condition of becoming tributary to Sulu, and confining their trade to that nation. Dalrymple asserts Barow to be in alliance with Sulu, and Kuran as tributary to it.

South of Barow lies Talisyan, an inconsiderable campong, beyond that a considerable place named Dunaring by Dalrymple, but by Radermacher Dammiar, the datu of which has the title of Baginua. To the south of this lies Samuanti, which is under a datu tumonggung, and beyond that the river of Tampeandurian or Tupedarian, the inhabitants of which have a bad reputation among eastern traders.

Coti, or, as it is commonly denominated, Coti Lama, lies considerably to the south of Samuanti, and between them are a number of towns and villages, the names of which are not generally known even to eastern traders. The town of Coti is situated about 50 miles up the river of that name. The trades and products of the country are nearly the same as at Borneo proper. This town, which rose upon the decline of Passir, is chiefly inhabited by Bugis traders. The sultan resides considerably further up the river, with a few Malays and a great number of Dayaks subject to him. According to Radermacher, the sultan of Coti, in 1780, was named Hageahmed.

Aparkarang lies to the south of Coti, and is likewise under the authority of a sultan, who, in 1780, was named Sultan Thora. This place is at present so insignificant, that I have never been able to meet any trader, whether native or European, that had ever heard of it. I believe, however, that it lies between the river Montu and the dangerous bay of Balik-papan, so named, because almost every boat that enters it is overset by the strength of the current. Between Balik-papan and Passir, formerly, in the time of Valentyn, lay a town inhabited by a brave and ferocious race of Dayak, who made use of the most dangerous poisoned bow-arrows, and *sumpits* or blow-pipes, with which they on some occasions made such havock, that their campong was termed "the grave of slave catchers."

Passir may be considered as a Bugis colony founded by the state of Waju; it is situated about 45 miles up the river of that name, which has two fathoms water on the bar. The town consisted of about 300 houses on the north side, chiefly occupied by the Bugis, and the sultan's fort was on the south side. About 30 years ago, it carried on a very considerable traffic, but has since that time been greatly on the decline from intestine dissensions. The native products of the country are gold, birds' nests, wax, and ratans, and almost all the staples of Java find a ready sale at Passir; the Bugis withdrew to Pulo Laut, termed by the natives Laut Pulo where they have established a considerable town on the island inside of the straits of Pulo Laut. The English sent the *Brillance* to form a factory here in 1772, but some evil commotions caused the design to be abandoned. Both Passir and Coti were in ancient times conquered by the Macasars. They entered into alliance with the Dutch in 1686.

Simpanahan, under a small chief who has the title of Pangeran, lies to the south-west of Passir. It is an inconsiderable town with few inhabitants with little trade, and producing only a few mats and birds' nests. Valentyn in his time states the campongs between Passir and Pulo Laut as follows: Passir Brava, 15 miles from Passir; then comes Pamatan, Apper Pamukan, Capus, Catappa, and Camla.

Pulo Laut is about 40 miles in its greatest length, and 20 in breadth, and its principal inhabitants at present are of Bugis extraction.

OF BANJARMASSING.

Banjar Massing is the chief state on the south side of the island of Borneo, and was, till very lately, reckoned the most powerful on the island. It is on the river of that name, which is of considerable size, and rises at a great distance in the interior of the country. According to popular report it descends from the great central lake of Kini Balu. The mouth of the river is very shallow, not exceeding 12 or 13 feet in depth, which compels trading vessels of any magnitude to remain in the offing. After passing the bar, the water deepens to six or seven fathoms. The Moslem population, about the year 1720, amounted, according to Valentyn, to about 7,000 persons, and in 1,780 according to Radermacher, they amounted to 8,500. They are a mingled mass of Javanese, Macasars, Bugis, and Malays of Johore, Menangkabow and Palembang, of whom the Javanese may be regarded as the most numerous. The state was founded by a fugitive prince of Madura, nearly related to the Susuha-

nan, and hence the affection of the Javánese titles and names of places, which has always prevailed at Banjarmassing.

Tabanyan on the east side of the bay, situated on a small river, is the place where the Dutch vessels were wont to lie. It is a small campong, containing only about 250 souls. In the vicinity of Tabanyan, and on the S. E. of the river Banjar, are situated the following campongs: Moluk, containing about 200 inhabitants; Blanang containing about 100, Tambangan containing 80, and Takisong containing about 50 inhabitants, all of whom are Moslems. The Dutch fort is situated on the outside of the town of Banjarmassing or Tatas, at a place named Clayang on the west of the river. It was of pentagonal form and fortified with palisadoes, with three bulwarks towards the river, and two towards the land. Banjar is under the immediate authority of the sultan's eldest son, who has the title of Pangerang Dupa. The residence of the sultan was at Kayu Tangi previous to the year 1771, when it was removed by Sultan Soliman Shahid Alla to Martapura, about three days journey up the river. This is a fine hunting station, as the name seems to indicate, and the sultan and his court are said to be greatly devoted to this amusement, which they pursue on horseback, and catch deer with nooses. Large horses are accordingly in high request at Banjar. According to Radermacher, the population of the Moslem campongs on the river Banjar in the year 1780 was as follows: Kayu-tangi with 200 inhabitants, Banjarmassing or Tatas 2000 inhabitants, Martapura or Bumi Kinchara 1800 inhabitants, Cohin or old Banjar 100 inhabitants, Bekrompi and Lusong 500 inhabitants, Pamanki 100 inhabitants, Brambang 80 inhabitants, Moerabahan 50 inhabitants, Sungey-benar 40 inhabitants, Labuang-mas 60 inhabitants, Taping 100 inhabitants, Nagara 550 inhabitants, Benois Ampat 90 inhabitants, Kalyong Campong 200 inhabitants, Amonty 520 inhabitants, Calona 120 inhabitants, Manapang 120 inhabitants.

The territories of Banjar extend a considerable way along shore on the west of the river, and also towards the interior; but the great mass of the population are not Moslems, but Dayaks. The principal districts are the following: Sibunau contains about 1000 huts, Biaju or little Dayak contains about 50 campongs, or negries, with a very numerous population of Dayaks. Biaju or great Dayak contains 734 campongs, inhabited by the most numerous and powerful tribe of Dayak in the island of Borneo, and who extend to the centre of the island. The following districts are generally dependent on Banjar, but sometimes assert a dubious sort of independence, the Moslems being few in number, and the Dayaks extremely numerous. Radermacher, in 1780, gives the estimated Moslem population, and mentions the names of different chiefs who appear to be Dayak: Mandawai, situated on the river of that name, contains about 200 Moslems and several thousand Dayaks. The chief in 1780 was Kyai Ingebai Suradi Raja. Sampit, situated on a much larger river, contains about 400 Moslems besides Dayaks, and the chief was Kyai Ingebai Sudi Ratu. Pambrang, situated on a smaller river, contains about 150 Moslems, and the chief was Radin Jaya. Cota-ringin, which is situated on a large river, as is supposed more than 100 miles from the shore, boats being generally ten or twelve days in reaching it, contains about 600 Moslems or Malays, with a very powerful tribe of Dayak. The chief is styled Ratu Cota-ringin, and his subjection to Banjar is more nominal than real.

The productions of Banjar are gold of a finer touch commonly than that of Sambas, which is only 7 touch, whereas that of Banjar is often 8 or 9; diamonds which are fine and large, but very dear: birds' nests of the best sort, to the quantity of 50 piculs, wax, dragon's blood, bezoar of different kinds, ratans, and mats. They have abundance of iron, but no steel, with the mode of preparing which they are unacquainted. Pepper may be considered as the chief staple of the country. Most of the productions of Java, as rice and sugar, salt and opium, find a ready sale at Banjar. Piece goods and China wares, especially porcelain, are also in considerable request. The gold mines at Banjar are said to lie very near the surface, at the depth of about three fathoms. Those at Kirsan and Duku which are very rich, lie in a red marle; above the mine there generally lies an incrustation like ratan wood, beneath which the gold dust is found in a red earth. There is also an ore named mas aurong found in the same mines with iron stone pebbles and sometimes crystal.

The diamond mines of Banjar are situated among the mountains of the Biajus. They are found in a soil of carron black gravel at the surface, and the pits are sometimes carried

to the depth of ten fathoms. The mines are wrought with very little skill, generally under the superintendence of a native Biaju who is termed the Malem. Gold dust is often found in the same mine with the diamond. The Sultan claims all diamonds above the weight of five carats, but this claim is generally evaded.

The English seem to have been the first European nation that frequented Banjarmassing for purposes of trade, unless we suppose, as is extremely probable, that they were preceded by the Portuguese. According to Valentyn, the English began to trade to Banjar in 1609, while he states, that the Dutch only began to frequent Banjar, or Martupura, occasionally about 1614. About the year 1700, the English fixed themselves in Banjar, with about 40 English and 100 Bugis, at which time the chief of Banjar had the title of Panambahan, and of the family of Sumbawa. In the course of the first year, differences occurred between the English and the natives, and the English were successful, and sacked five of their principal campongs: Banjar, Banjarmassing, Kayu-tangi, Tatas and Martapura. A pacification took place, and the English afterwards reduced their establishment to 10 Englishmen and 40 Bugis. Hostilities again ensued in the year 1706, and the English were expelled, those who escaped proceeding to Batavia. In this year 1706, the Dutch began to trade at Banjar again, and continued it with some interruptions, but without forming a regular settlement till 1747, after which they formed their establishment at Tatas, which continued till it was abandoned by Daendels in 1807-8, about the time of the decline of the pepper trade.

It appears, that so early as the year 1690, the Portuguese had settled missionaries at Banjar, and according to Valentyn, they enumerated between three and four thousand converts to the Catholic faith, soon after the commencement of last century. Of the present state of these Christians I am ignorant.

OF THE WESTERN COAST OF BORNEO.

The western coast of Borneo, like the eastern, has for a long time been broken down into a variety of small and feeble states. In earlier times, however, it seems to have been chiefly under the influence of the two states of Succadana and Sambas, the most ancient and powerful of which was Succadana. The Dutch began to trade to Succadana in 1604, about which period the place possessed a considerable trade. In the year 1608, they entered into a treaty with Sambas, by which they bound themselves to support Sambas against Succadana, and to abandon their trade to the latter place; the sultan of Sambas, obliging himself in his turn to grant the Dutch a monopoly of the trade of Sambas, to the exclusion of the Spanish, Portuguese, English, French, and other nations of Europe. In 1623, the Dutch finally abandoned their factory at Succadana.

Succadana, according to Valentyn, consisted, about the beginning of last century, of nearly 600 houses, being a town similar to Banjarmassing. At that period the sultan was reckoned much richer, but less powerful than him of Banjarmassing, and it was thought that he could not easily muster above 1000 men at arms. His influence however, extended over a great tract of country, commencing about the promontory of Kandu-wangan off the small island of Pulo Manku, and extending along by Pagarun-timong, commonly termed Tanjong Sambar, to the present town of Mattan, which lies about 40 miles to the south of the ancient Succadana, and nearly the same from the mouth of the river Mattan. The ancient Succadana was situated near the mouth of the river of that name, which is navigable by boats for 150 miles into the interior; of the town at present scarce a vestige remains. About 5 miles to the northward of Succadana lies the river Simpang, and the modern town of Simpang lies about 20 miles up the river. To the north west of Simpang lie several large rivers, which run up from the bight of Succadana towards Pontiana, nearly insulating the high land of Karimata. From the point of Karimata lies a chain of islands and rocks, the principal of which are Panambangan, on the groupe nearest the shore, and Karimata and Surutu, which tend outside outwards towards Biliton. The isle of Karimata is inhabited, and produces iron and tin like Biliton. About the year 1600, these islands were places of some consequence, and as much frequented by the traders of Succadana as they have lately been by pirates and Lanuns. The territories of Succadana extended in ancient times to the modern Mampawa, if not still farther north, and

included the river of Pontiana. In the time of Valentyn, the interior kingdom of Landak was also dependent on Succadana. Landak was in the most ancient times a dependency on Sukapura in Java, and as Succadana itself was regarded as a dependency of Bantam, on account of some ancient claims, the Javanese princes from time to time asserted their pretensions to the sovereignty of the whole country of Succadana, though generally unable to give either weight or colour to their pretensions. After the rise of Pontiana, however, in 1779, the sultan of Bantam, lest his influence should be totally annihilated, consigned over to the Dutch the whole of his claims on these territories for the sum of Spanish Dollars 30,000. In 1776, the Dutch formed settlements at Pontiana and Landak. In 1786, they attacked Succadana, then governed by Raja Ali, who had abandoned Rhio. Succadana was at this time a place of considerable trade, and though frequented sometimes by Dutch vessels, it had long been a subject of jealousy to that nation, from being the principal haunt of the English and French traders on the island of Borneo. The Dutch force employed against Succadana, consisted of 500 Europeans and 1000 Javanese, with two large armed brigs, and a great number of prows. The sultan of Pontiana sent along with them his son the present raja, with a number of armed Malay prows, and about 400 Bugis. Succadana was sacked and burnt, but little property was seized, as the inhabitants escaped with the greater part of their property to Mattan. Since that period, Succadana has never had any considerable trade, nor been re-settled to any considerable extent, though favourably situated for traffic in a country which affords all the common productions of Borneo, especially camphor, benjamin, dragon's blood, agar wood, and ratans. Mattan is still governed by a branch of the family of the ancient sultans of Succadana, but this branch has long been proverbial for their stupidity. The river of Mattan and the territories subject to it which still comprehend the greater part of those which belonged to the ancient Succadana, are all extremely well adapted to trade, and excite the cupidity of its neighbours, especially Pontiana. The present raja, however, though no cruel tyrant, is generally despised as a besotted opium eater, who has neither taste nor abilities for state affairs. The Lanun pirates however, who occasionally haunt Panambangan, Karimata, and even Succadana, are not harbored in Mattan, and the raja is at present on good terms with the sultan of Pontiana. The most remarkable circumstance connected with Mattan is that the raja possesses the finest and largest diamond in the world, which has hitherto been discovered. This diamond, which is said to be of the finest water, weighs 367 carats. The celebrated Pitt diamond weighs only 127 carats. The Mattan diamond is shaped like an egg, with an indented hollow near the smaller end. It was discovered at Landak about 90 years ago, and though the possession of it has occasioned numerous wars, it has been about 80 years in the possession of the Mattan family. Many years ago, the governor of Batavia sent a Mr. Stuvart to ascertain the weight, quality, and value of this diamond, and to endeavour to purchase it, and in this mission he was accompanied by the present sultan of Pontiana. After examining it Mr. Stuvart offered 150.000 dollars for the diamond, the sum to which he was limited, and in addition to this sum two war brigs, with their guns and ammunition, together with a certain number of great guns, and a quantity of powder and shot. The raja, however, refused to deprive his family of so valuable a hereditary possession, to which the Malays attach the miraculous power of curing all kinds of diseases, by means of the water in which it is dipped, and with which they imagine the fortune of the family is connected.

Mampawa, though situated to the north of Pontiana, requires our previous attention as an older state, which sprung up between Succadana and Sambas, and at last became independent of either. Mampawa is situated near the mouth of a small river, and vessels may reach both the town and fort with their guns. Being greatly resorted to by traders, especially English and Portuguese, it soon became a place of considerable importance.

According to Radermacher, in 1780 it contained from one to two thousand houses. The raja had the title of Panambahan, which is regarded as the next in dignity to that of sultan. At that time his name was Muscan al Maderi, but he had given up the administration of affairs to his son Gusti Mas. In 1772, a war commenced between Mampawa and Sambas, concerning the possession of Monterado and Salakan, which lie between Mampawa and Sambas, but have generally been admitted to belong to the latter. These two settlements are chiefly occupied by Chinese, nearly 30,000 of whom are settled in them, and are extremely

productive of gold dust. The Mampawa men having ravaged Salakan, the sultan of Sambas, in his turn attacked Mampawa, and the panambahan invited the meditation of Pontiana. This mediation succeeded, and the sultan of Sambas withdrew his army, on receiving the sum of 10,000 dollars, the greater part of which was advanced by the sultan of Pontiana. After the retreat of the Sambas army, the panambahan of Mampawa positively refused to reimburse the sultan of Pontiana, who in his turn attacked Mampawa. After a seige of three months, he was compelled to break up with loss from Mampawa, to which he found that Sambas supplied assistance. This was the foundation of the uninterrupted state of hostility which has from that period subsisted between Sambas and Pontiana. The sultan of Pontiana made another attempt, with a small force supplied him by the Dutch, and was again baffled. After the destruction of Succadana in 1786, however, they assisted him a third time, with an armament consisting of one vessel of 70 guns, another of 50 guns, a third of 30 guns, together with a large transport, and some smaller vessels, when Mampawa surrendered without firing a gun, and the eldest son of the sultan was appointed panambahan. The raja or old panambahan escaped up the river, where he remained till he died. The Dutch established a factory at Mampawa of 32 Europeans, and a small sloop in the river, and divided the duties with the panambahan, but abandoned it at the same time as Pontiana, in 1790. After this, the new panambahan permitted the son of the deposed raja to return to Mampawa, and reside in a private capacity, with a small establishment, and the empty title of raja.

Sambas is situated about 30 miles up the river of that name, and the territory runs a considerable way into the interior, and is rich in gold dust. About the year 1600, and also about the year 1700, this appears to have been a considerable state, and to have extended its sway far into the interior. This is the first of the eastern states with which the Dutch formed an exclusive treaty, and at that time the chief appears to have had the title of sultan. In every period, however, this state has been more distinguished for its piracies than its commerce, and has been always addicted to aggressions on its neighbours. For the last ten years especially, it has been notorious over all the east, as the common haunt of every description of pirates and Lanuns, and it has forfeited every title to be considered as a trading state, or as a state the existence of which is consistent with either the safety of commerce, or the safety of its neighbours. It now appears that great numbers of the pirates and sea-rovers of the east have settled at Sambas, and intermarried with the ancient inhabitants.

OF PONTIANA.

As Pontiana is of more recent origin than any other of the Malay states, so it is almost the only one in which the rise can be accurately traced. The account of the origin of Pontiana was procured by Mr. J. Burn, from the late sultan, who was its founder and his principal associate in the course of a residence of several years at that place, and communicated lately by Mr. Raffles, together with the result of his inquiries concerning the interior of the island of Borneo. The information thus collected has every claim to authority, and is the more valuable, because it illustrates in a striking manner the origin of the other Malay states, the greater number of which may be fairly considered as counterparts to Pontiana.

Pontiana was founded in 1770, by Seyd Abdul Rehman, the son of Seyd Hassan, by a woman of inferior rank, and born at Mattan. His father, Seyd Hassan, was a native of Arabia, highly respected among the Malay rajas who had married at Mattan. He afterwards took up his residence at Mampawa, where he died a few months before Pontiana was founded. He had several wives, and left several children, but none of them distinguished themselves but Abdul Rehman. The latter possessing great abilities, intrepidity, and a most insinuating address, soon became an enterprising and successful merchant, and realized considerable property. He married a sister of the sultan of Banjar, and also a sister of the raja of Mampawa, but generally resided at Banjarmassing. Possessing a brig or sloop, and several war prows of his own, besides several merchant vessels, he applied vigorously to commerce, frequenting Coti, Passir, Palembang, and other Malay ports, but seldom visiting Java. His operations, however, were not entirely confined to commercial pursuits, but when favorable opportunities occurred, he shewed no greater repugnance to piracy than is usual among the Arabs.

He had already cut off a Dutch vessel in the vicinity of Banca, and an English one at Passir, and done many things which were highly disapproved by the venerable Seyd, his father, when at last, about a year or eighteen months before his father's death, he succeeded in cutting off at Passir a French ship, with a very rich cargo, by which he incurred the displeasure of his father, who renounced all further communication with him. The manner in which the ship was cut off, however, he deemed so discreditable, that he never would relate the story, though he admitted the fact, alledging, that previous to this transaction, some of his vessels had been stopped by the French, and his women ill treated. An old woman, who had been the sultan's concubine, and who had borne a material part in the transaction, related the following circumstances to Mr. Burn, after the death of the sultan. After having greatly ingratiated himself with the French captain, he informed him that he intended to present him with two beautiful slave girls, at the same time expressing a desire to see the ship. The French captain invited him on board, catching at the bait, and Seyd Abdul Rehman promised to bring the slave girls with him. The captain prepared an entertainment, and saluted him as he came on board, which he did with several followers properly instructed, but apparently unarmed. He sat down with his people, and partook of the entertainment, after which he called the two women he had brought, one of whom was the concubine who related the story. Abdul Rehman pointed to the concubine, and desired the captain to conduct her to his cabin; the captain did so, and the woman, as she had been instructed, secured the door. The rest of the Frenchmen were all on deck, as well as a number of his Malay followers. Abdul Rehman gave the signal with his hand, and the whole of them were instantly krissed, the lascars at the same time throwing themselves into the sea, according to their usual practice. The captain was then put to death, and the vessel secured. When Abdul Rehman heard of his father's indignation at his conduct, he left Passir, and when he had almost reached Mampawa, he was informed of his death. Resolving now to settle at Sango, in the interior of Borneo, he entered the river of Pontiana or rather Lava, and proceeded up it about twelve miles to the conflux of the river of Landak with that of Pontiana, anchoring for the night at the point where the rivers join. In the morning, being struck with the situation of the place, which had never been inhabited, he determined to settle it, and proposing the plan to his followers, most of them acceded to it, but a few objected and left him. After repeated discharges of his great guns loaded with shot, into a small island near the point, Abdul Rehman landed, cut down some trees, displayed his colours, and prayed for success to the undertaking.

Having erected a small house for the night, he slept a-shore, and named the place Pontiana or rather Pontianak, which is the name the Malays give to a spectre of the forests, which appears in the form of a winged female; this was in the year 1770. He then built a mosque on the small island, which still remains, having been renewed on the same spot, and a fort on the point of land which commands the entrance of the rivers of Sango and Landak, whither he also brought up the French ship. The crew of this vessel he employed as slaves in clearing the jungle, and his followers built houses along the banks of the river. Such was the foundation of Pontiana. As soon as Abdul Rehman was settled in his new residence, he visited Mampawa to pray over the tomb of his father, whose forgiveness he had never procured, and this ceremony he continued to perform at stated periods until the year of his death.

As the traders to Landak, Sango, and other settlements in the interior of Borneo, were necessitated to pass by Pontiana, Seyd Abdul Rehman daily acquired new settlers by his insinuating address and the protection which he was ready to afford the traders against the Lanuns, and he was joined by several Bugis and Chinese traders from Mampawa, Sambas, and other Malay ports. He next applied to Raja Haji of Rhio, who conferred on him the title of sultan of Pontiana. By what right such a title was conferred, it is impossible to conjecture; but he immediately assumed the title, and established a court in a very expensive style. His profusion attracted new followers, and he was joined by various Arabs, who, though they impaired his fortune, yet for the time increased his consequence. By these means, Pontiana, in the space of single year, became a considerable settlement, and attracted the jealousy of the raja of Landak. The raja of Landak was at this time a dependent of the sultan of Bantam, and being alarmed at the reports which he heard, that the sultan of

Pontiana intended to block up the river and engross its trade, he despatched an embassy to Pontiana, to inquire what were his intentions. The sultan of Pontiana, though he professed that his intentions were not of a hostile nature, took care to display his power, and fired off his great guns repeatedly in their presence. They transmitted to Bantam a very exaggerated account of the strength of Pontiana, the consequence of which was, that the sultan of Bantam conceiving himself unable to protect Landak, resigned it to the Dutch. In 1776 the Dutch sent a strong force from Batavia to Pontiana to establish themselves in their newly acquired possessions, and the sultan of Pontiana, intimidated by their power, allowed them to settle at Pontiana, where they built a stockade fort and mounted on it six guns. They also established a factory, consisting of a resident, a secretary and his clerk, a surgeon, a captain with a subaltern. and 25 European soldiers. They also stationed an armed cutter in the river, which was likewise manned with Europeans, so that they altogether about 100 Europeans, but no native soldiers. The Dutch now imposed what duties they pleased, and allowed the sultan but a very small share of them, which circumstance, together with his profuse manner of living, compelled the sultan to run deeply in debt. In the year 1786, the Dutch, assisted by the force of Pontiana, destroyed Succadana and Mampawa, in the latter of which they placed the sultan of Pontiana's eldest son as panambahan, establishing there a factory of their own, dependent on that of Pontiana. Previous, however, to the settlement of the Dutch at Pontiana, it was visited by a French frigate, commanded by the brother of the French captain whom the sultan had formerly cut off at Passir, and who had been dispatched for the express purpose of attacking him ; but as the frigate could not pass the bar, and durst not send in her boats to attack the place, she was able to effect nothing, and was compelled to return after destroying a few prows at the mouth of the river, which had never had any concern in the crime of the sultan.

In the year 1790 the Dutch withdrew their factories from both Pontiana and Mampawa, after a residence of 14 years, finding that though they had imposed what duties they pleased, and given the sultan only what share they liked, their profits were far from compensating the expense of the establishment. We have no detail of the expense and profits of this factory, unless for the year 1779, when the expense amounted to about 884 pounds sterling, and the receipts only to about 160 pounds. The residence of the Dutch at Pontiana was not without occasional misunderstandings occurring between them and the sultan. One of the most serious of these seems to have originated entirely from their ignorance of Malay customs. Soon after the settlement of the factory at Pontiana, a siri, or prepared betel, was presented by a male slave to the surgeon. Among the Malays this is regarded as an overture to a intrigue from some female of rank, but the surgeon was ignorant of this custom, and the slave had retired without speaking a word. The surgeon, holding the siri in his hand, met the sultan, and related to him the circumstance, expressing his surprise at what it could mean. The sultan requested him to point out the person who had brought it, which he did immediately, and the slave being seized, confessed that the siri had been sent by one of the sultan's concubines. The sultan immediately, without farther explanation, ordered the slave's head to be cut off in the presence of the surgeon, and the woman was dispatched privately. The Dutch resident and the rest of the factory took the alarm, and declared that they would return to Java. The sultan endeavoured to pacify them, but in vain, and they retired to Batu Layang, a solitary rock on which a fort is built, about five miles below Pontiana. Here they fortified themselves and posted the armed cutter, and firing upon all prows, attempted to block up the river. The sultan repeatedly attempted to persuade the resident to return, but finding all remonstrances in vain, he represented the matter to Batavia, when the resident was re-called, and another sent in his place. who returned and took up his residence in Pontiana.

During the residence of the Dutch at Pontiana, a good deal of illicit trade had been carried on by the English, with the connivance of the Dutch resident, the ships anchoring only without the mouth of the river ; but after the factory was withdrawn, Pontiana became a resort of English traders, and was also frequented by the Portuguese from Macao, and the Arabs from Muscat and Mocha. It was also visited by numerous prows from all parts of Borneo, Bali, Lombok, Sumbawa, and Java. This, however, only continued till Pulo Penang began to flourish, since which time it had greatly decayed. The Java trade was nearly ex-

tinguished by the war between the Dutch and English, the prohibition of the export of dollars from Java, and some unjustifiable acts of the sultan in swindling many of the Javanese owners out of their cargoes.

Sultan Abdul Rehman died after a short illness, February 26th, 1808, about the age of 70 years. When he perceived himself dangerously ill, he assembled the chief men, and told them he appointed his eldest son, the panambahan of Mampawa, to succeed him, and dispatched a person to summon the panambahan into his presence. Next day the chiefs assembled, and declared that they desired the pangerang to be sultan who was his second son, but by an inferior wife, and that they would abandon the place if the panambahan was to succeed him, accusing him of cruelty and divers acts of murder and poisoning, especially the poisoning the master of a Chinese junk to whom he was indebted about 8,000 dollars, and the assassination of Captain Sadler, to whom he was indebted 30,000 dollars. They added that they expected his bad conduct would speedily place them in the same situation as Sambas and probably draw on them the resentment of the English.

The sultan assented, and told them since they desired it, the pangerang would be the sultan. The panambahan arrived next day and was informed of this resolution. When he came into his father's presence, the old man severely reprobated his conduct, and advised him to go on pilgrimage to Mecca. The sultan also sent for Mr. Burn, whom he had sometime before swindled out of a valuable cargo, and having requested his forgiveness, desired him to beware of the panambahan, as a man of naturally bad heart, and after his death to have no interviews with him unless in public. On the death of the old sultan, the second brother, desirous of not being involved in his father's debts, declined the honor of being sultan. The head men, however, were at first refractory, and it was sometime before they could be brought to acknowledge the first son as sultan, which he only accomplished by dint of presents and promises, engaging to discharge his father's debts as soon as possible, while he gave up many of his own claims, especially those which were due by the Arabs.

The deceased sultan was a man of fine presence and the most respectable appearance, possessed the most insinuating address and imposing manners. Profuse and ostentatious in his habits, he scrupled at no means, however base, for raising money to support this exterior state, and as he was perfectly versed in every species of deception, and always supported the appearance of wealth, he seldom failed to procure credit from strangers. He concealed his debts with the utmost care, and was in the constant habit of contracting one debt to discharge another, often selling goods for that purpose at a large discount on what he had bought them. By this means his debts and his difficulties went on gradually accumulating till his death. The most considerable part of his debts were incurred to the Bugis traders, and in consequence of this, the sultan was obliged to wink at many irregularities of those traders, in regard to avoiding the usual port duties. The Chinese repeatedly made him offers to farm the duties of the port, but to this he would not consent, foreseeing the disputes that were certain of arising between the Bugis and Chinese. In the midst of these difficulties, however, the Arabs and other religious impostors prevailed on him to advance to them large sums of money, which they never thought of refunding; thus, with all his dissimulation, becoming the dupe of hypocrisy. He seems always to have displayed more of the character of the artful trader than of the sovereign, though it must be owned that he exhibited considerable suppleness and dexterity in ruling the motley mass of subjects which he had collected at Pontiana.

In punishment he was uncommonly severe, and even barbarous. In his own family the faults of his domestics, especially his women, were punished in the most cruel manner, and by the most infamous sorts of tortures, sometimes pouring boiling water into the privities of the females, or burning them alive with their paramours, on the suspicion of incontinence.

The present sultan, since the death of his father, has conducted himself in such a manner as in a great measure to efface the former dislike which was entertained of him by the people, carefully avoiding the most prominent errors of his father's character. He has endeavoured to liquidate his father's debts, but has found them so enormous, that a long period must elapse before this can possibly be effected. Carefully avoiding all superfluous expense and the contracting of new debts, he has attempted to establish better regulations. He grada-

ally dismissed the Arabs and religious impostors, who had preyed on his father's credulity, and attempted likewise to compel the Bugis traders to pay the usual duties. In this, however, he has never been able to succeed, and many of them have left Pontiana, in consequence of his measures, neither are the Chinese traders so numerous as they formerly were.

The present sultan has been engaged in no hostilities excepting with Sambas, which is still the inveterate enemy of Pontiana. Shortly after the death of the old sultan of Pontiana, the chief of Sambas attacked Mampawa, and had very nearly taken the fort. Immediately on receiving intelligence of it, the present sultan proceeded to Mampawa with 2000 men, and defeated the Sambas army, taking their guns, and a number of prisoners, all of whom, even the women, were put to death at Pontiana, and their heads exposed publicly. The union of the Lanuns with the chief of Sambas, has, however, given that chieftain a decided preponderance at sea.

The mouth of Lewa or Pontiana river lies about 3 or 4 miles to the N. of the equator. The bar at the entrance has only from 11 to 12 feet at high spring tides, but above this the river is very deep to an immense distance, and the strength of the current seldom exceeds from 3 to 3½ miles an hour, and is generally less. The anchorage in the roads is safe and free from shoals, and the weather, even in October, which is the worst month, is never so bad as to interrupt the regular intercourse between the ships and the shore. About 7 miles from the mouth of the river, at Batu Layang, there is a fort on each side of the river, with 14 or 15 guns mounted, being 18 and 24 pounders; on the north side of the river and on the south side, directly opposite, a number of smaller guns. The town of Pontiana is about 12 miles from the mouth of the river, where there is likewise a fort, and some armed vessels stationed.

In the town and bounds of Pontiana, there are settled about 3,000 Malays, 1,000 Bugis, 100 Arabs, and about 10,000 Chinese; besides these, who are the free inhabitants, there are a considerable number of slaves, many of whom are Javanese, and the rest from all the other eastern tribes; there are also a few run-away Lascars from different vessels. The character of the Malays is nearly the same at Pontiana as in other eastern towns, phlegmatic, indolent, and proud, and few of them possess much wealth. The Arabs live by trade; they are generally poor when they settle, but are respected on account of their religious character, by the Malays. They are, however, neither such economists as the Bugis, nor so expert as the Chinese in trade, and at present few of them possess property to the amount of 20,000 dollars. The Chinese seldom acquire above this amount at Pontiana, though they are industrious, and expert in trade. They are fond of good living, and addicted to gambling, opium, and merry making. They follow the occupations of merchants, mechanics, and labourers, cultivate the ground, distill arrack, make sugar, search for gold dust, and trade to the interior, as well as along the coast. The Chinese of Monterado and Salakan, two places very near each other, and situated a short way to the north of Mampawa, and who are estimated at 30,000, receive from Pontiana all their supplies of opium, piece goods, iron, and China articles. The Bugis at Pontiana chiefly apply themselves to trade, the manufacture of Bugis cloth, and the working of raw silk into cloths. Many of them are possessed of very large property, amounting to above 100,000 dollars. They are generally poor when they come from Bugis land, but soon acquire property from uniting frugality with dexterity in trade. They are extremely economical and even penurious in their manner of living, insomuch that the daily expense of a Bugis man's family, however great his property may be, does not amount to above 3 or 4 wangs, when the meanest Chinese labourer will continue to spend a rupee; and a wang at Pontiana is only the 12th part of a rupee.

The sultan allows them to cultivate as much ground as they please, without any consideration for the same; but they seldom avail themselves of this permission, permitting their domestic slaves only to till as much as serves for their own subsistence. In navigation, the Bugis seem to have been stationary probably for these thousand years; the prows in which they sail from Pontiana to Pulo Penang, Java, Bali, or any similar place, generally cost from 150 to 300 dollars, and the whole outfit, as far as respects sails, cordage, provisions stores, &c., for one of these voyages, seldom exceeds the sum of 40 or 50 dollars, while the amount of the cargo is generally from 10 to 10,000 dollars. The crews receive no wages, but only a share of the adventure, according to the regulations of the undang undang. Many of these prows are lost at sea, but few taken by pirates, as they defend themselves desperately, and never surrender.

The duties at Pontiana on sales are 6 per cent. on all piece goods, one dollar per picul on iron, ditto on steel, ditto on tin, ditto on salt-petre, 50 dollars per chest on opium, bees' wax from the interior, 2 dollars per picul. The trade of Pontiana, however, has greatly declined. Formerly it was annually visited by from 8 to 15 Chinese junks; at present, however, they never exceed the number of 5. Two or three small junks come annually from Siam, but the value of their cargoes is only about 7 or 8000 dollars each.

In 1810, the imports at Pontiana on English ships amounted to 210,000 dollars, of which there were 95 chests of opium, which averaged 1000 dollars per chest. The quantity of opium and piece goods imported by the Bugis, was probably much greater; but as they never submit to be searched, it cannot be accurately known. The Bugis at Bali and some other ports are exempted from duties, and they are always anxious to avoid them in every port. Formerly the ports in the straits of Macasar, especially those on the Borneo side, as Coti and Passir, were chiefly supplied with opium, piece goods, iron, and steel, from Pontiana and Sambas; a small quantity being supplied by Java and Rhio, and the returns, which were very rich, consisting chiefly of gold, wax, and birds' nests, found their way into Pontiana. These ports, however, have for some time been supplied from Pulo Penang.

The China junks come to Pontiana in February, with China articles, and sail about the end of June, taking in return, gold, birds' nests, sea slug, fine camphor, wax, ratans, black wood for making furniture, red wood for dyeing, and sometimes opium, tin, and other articles. As they cannot take their full return in rough produce, they are obliged to take a large amount in gold, though they always prefer produce, as there is a loss upon gold in China.

The sultan of Pontiana has a regular disciplined force, but all the inhabitants are obliged to act as soldiers when necessity requires. The Malays and Bugis are always ready and willing to turn out for battle, and the Chinese are obliged to assist likewise, in case of any emergency, though the Malays place little or no confidence in them. When an alarm has been given, the whole force of the place has repeatedly, as Mr. Burn asserts, turned out in half an hour or less, and the activity displayed on such occasions forms a striking contrast to the usual listlessness of a Malay town. They manufacture their own powder and shot at Pontiana.

The soil of Pontiana is low and marshy, but the climate is healthy, and the only distemper from which they suffer is the small pox, which makes great havoc among them, as they are unacquainted with either inoculation or vaccination. Pontiana does not produce so much rice or fruit as the settlements of the interior, but this is only through the defect of cultivation. There is abundance of sea and river fish, and the Chinese raise great quantities of stock, especially hogs, which are both cheap and excellent in quality.

OF THE DAYAKS.

The Dayaks are the most numerous class of inhabitants on the island of Borneo; they occupy nearly the whole of the interior, and are probably the aborigines of the island. They are divided into a great variety of tribes, which are independent of each other, and vary in dialect, but have a general resemblance in language, customs, and manners. In the districts south and west they are generally denominated Dayak, in the north, Idaan, and in the east, Tirun or Tedong. Perhaps, however, on more minute investigation, some characteristic distinctions may be established between these races; at present we are warranted to consider them as the same original stock. The manners of the Dayaks are characterized by some strange peculiarities and uncommon features of barbarism, but the spirit of these traits has never been elucidated, nor the system of religious or superstitious opinions with which they are connected, examined. Europeans have had very little opportunity of attending to the manners or habits of the Dayaks; and the Malay, Bugis, or Arab traders, the only persons who are in the habit of frequenting the interior of Borneo, can give little account of the country, beyond mentioning the distance of one place from another in days journeys, and the different articles of trade which are to be procured at different places. In the following sketch the authority followed with respect to the southern tribes is that of Radermacher, whose observations chiefly apply to the tribe of Banjar, named Biaju. With regard to the east and north, the chief authorities are Dalrymple and Forrest, and with regard to the west the authority of

Mr. Burn, who had not only the opportunity of consulting many traders of Pontiana, who were in the habit of visiting the interior, but had himself seen several hundreds of the tribes of Mampawa and Sango, several of whom could converse in the Malay language.

In appearance, the Dayaks are fairer and handsomer than the Malays; they are of a more slender make, with higher foreheads and noses; their hair is long, straight, and coarse, generally cut short round their heads. The females are fair and handsome. Many of the Dayaks have a rough scaly scurf on their skin, like the jakong of the Malay peninsula. This they consider as an ornament, and are said to acquire it by rubbing the juice of some plant on their skin. The female slaves of this race which are found among the Malays have no appearance of it. The Dayaks wear no clothes but a small wrapper round their loins, and many of them tattoo a variety of figures on their bodies. Their houses are formed of wood, dark, and devoid of windows, but often of such size that several families live together in the same house, sometimes amounting to the number of a hundred persons.

Though the Dayaks are reckoned indolent by the Malays, it does not appear that the charge is well established. Wherever they are settled they cultivate a great quantity of rice; they in many places apply themselves assiduously to collect gold dust, though in this occupation they are greatly inferior to the Chinese, and are generally found very useful in working the diamond mines. In some places too, they carry on a considerable trade in ratans and damar, which they collect from the forest. In their diet the Dayaks are subject to few restrictions, eating hog, and also many kinds of vermin, as rats and snakes. The arms of the Dayaks are the sumpit or blow-pipe, which has generally a small spear-head fixed at the top, and a large heavy iron knife or parang, which they sling in a wooden scabbard. They are very dexterous in throwing small poisoned arrows with the sumpit, and are acquainted with the most deadly poisons, especially one which is produced from the juice of a tree found in Borneo and also in Java. In the construction of their boats and some of their utensils, the Dayaks display considerable ingenuity. Few of them are acquainted with the use of fire arms, excepting in the vicinity of Banjar, and the Malays are anxious to keep them in this ignorance.

In manners they are described as a mild and simple people, and though their superstitious opinions occasion great enormities among them, yet it is admitted by the Moslems, that when any of them happen to be converted to that religion, they become exemplary for the propriety of their conduct.

In government they are regulated in their own villages, like the jakong, by the advice of their elders. In some places, however, they have their own chiefs, who possess a degree of authority analogous to that of the Malay rajas.

In regard to letters, it does not appear that they ever had any knowledge of them; and in consequence of this, it is impossible to trace their origin. Their own traditions on this head are represented as excessively wild and incoherent, but it does not appear that they have ever been collected. The Sulus have a notion, that the Idaan of the north are descended from the Chinese, an opinion which seems merely to have originated from the fairness of their complexion. Dalrymple has mentioned one of the legends connected with this opinion (Orient. Repertory Vol. 1. page 559) which runs thus: "The emperor of China sent a great fleet for the stone of a snake, which had its residence at Kini Balu; the number of people landed was so great as to form a continued chain from the sea, and when the snake's stone was stolen, it was handed from one to another till it reached the boat, which immediately put off from the shore, and carried the prize to the junks, which immediately sailing, left all those who were ashore behind, though their dispatch was not enough to prevent the snake's pursuit, who came up with the junks and regained his treasure." This is not a tradition which can throw any light on the origin of the Dayaks. It resembles a Malay fable about the snakes or Nagas, which figure nearly as much in the romances of the Malays as among those of the Hindus, among whom Naga obviously signifies a mountaineer as well as a snake.

In religion, the Dayaks acknowledge the supremacy of the maker of the world, whom they term Devata or Dewatta, and to whom they address prayers as its preserver. They hold particular kinds of birds in high veneration, and draw omens from the sounds which they utter, and from their flights. One of the principal of these is a large species of white headed

kite, which preys on fish, snakes, and vermin. By some, they are said to hold the sun and moon in particular veneration, and to worship them; but when Mr. Burn interrogated them on this point, they steadily denied it. In all their wars, journeys, and in short all matters of importance, they pay the utmost attention to the omens of birds, and sometimes too they endeavour to penetrate the secrets of futurity by consulting the entrails of birds. Their ceremonies of a religious kind are few, but many of them are dreadfully barbarous.

At the birth of a child, during the parturition, they summon a conjurer, who is termed balian, instead of a midwife, and who instead of lending any assistance to the woman, beats a gindang, and sings to it till the child is born.

With regard to their funeral ceremonies, the corpse is placed in a coffin, and remains in the house till the son, the father, or the nearest of blood, can procure or purchase a slave, who is beheaded at the time that the corpse is burnt, in order that he may become the slave of the deceased in the next world. The ashes of the deceased are then placed in an earthen urn, on which various figures are exhibited, and the head of the slave is dried and prepared in a peculiar manner with camphor and drugs, and deposited near it. It is said that this practice often induces them to purchase a slave guilty of some capital crime, at five fold his value, in order that they may be able to put him to death on such occasions.

With respect to marriage, the most brutal part of their customs is that nobody can be permitted to marry till he can present a human head of some other tribe to his proposed bride, in which case she is not permitted to refuse him. It is not, however, necessary that this should be obtained entirely by his own personal prowess. When a person is determined to go a head-hunting, as it is very often a very dangerous service, he consults with his friends and acquaintances, who frequently accompany him, or send their slaves along with him. The head-hunter then proceeds with his party in the most cautious manner to the vicinity of the villages of another tribe, and lies in ambush till they surprise some heedless unsuspecting wretch, who is instantly decapitated. Sometimes too they surprise a solitary fisherman in a river, or on the shore, who instantly undergoes the same fate. When the hunter returns, the whole village is filled with joy, and old and young, men and women, hurry out to meet him, and conduct him with the sound of brazen cymbals, dancing in long lines, to the house of the female he admires, whose family likewise comes out to meet him with dances, and provide him a seat, and give him meat and drink. He still holds the bloody head in his hand, and puts part of the food into its mouth, after which the females of the family come and receive the head from him, which they hang up to the ceiling over the door. The betrothing of the bride then takes place, when the husband must present her with one or more slaves, a couple of cloths, and an earthern urn or pitcher adorned with figures. On the day of the marriage ceremony, the bride and the bridegroom are both dressed very fine in their manner, and a feast is held in each of their houses. The bridegroom comes in state to the house of the bride, where one of the friends receives him at the door, and streaks him with the blood of a cock, and also streaks the bride with the blood of a hen. When the blood spreads too wide, it is reckoned a bad omen. The parties then join their bloody hands, and the ceremony concludes with another feast.

If a man's wife die, he is not permitted to make proposals of marriage to another, till he has provided another head of a different tribe, as it to revenge the death of his deceased wife. The heads procured in this manner they preserve with great care, and sometimes consult in divination. The religious opinions connected with this practice are by no means correctly understood. Some assert that they believe that every person whom a man kills in this world, becomes his slave in the next. The Idaan, it is said, think that the entrance into paradise is over a long tree which serves for a bridge, over which it is impossible to pass without the assistance of a slave slain in this world. Some of the Idaan of the north reckon paradise to be situated at the top of Kini Balu, and guarded by a fiery dog, that seizes on all virgins as they attempt to pass.

The Idaans are religious observers of oaths. They have a religious form likewise, by which they adopt strangers into their tribes. They pronounce a certain form of words, and then cut a ratan, the person to be adopted does the same, after which he and all his relations are considered as adopted. They generally massacre all prisoners of war, the chief striking the first stroke. When they take a hostile chief prisoner, they preserve his whole body with camphor, with his arms extended, and place cowries in the sockets of his eyes.

The practice of stealing heads causes frequent wars among the different tribes of the Idaan. Many persons never can obtain a head, in which case they are generally despised by the warriors and the women. To such a height it is carried, however, that a person who had obtained eleven heads, has been seen by Mr. Burn, and he pointed out his son, a young lad, who had precured three.

The Dayaks do not practice polygamy. When a married woman commits adultery, the husband wipes off his disgrace by murdering one, two, or three of his slaves, and sometimes chastises the unfaithful wife with blows. When a man, of his own accord, wishes to separate from his wife, he resigns her clothes and ornaments, and pays her besides a forfeit of 20, 25, or 30 Spanish dollars, after which he may marry another. The Dayaks have some vestiges of ordeal amongst them. When charges of theft occur, they put a pot and put into it some ashes of a particular kind and taking two copper pice, one in the name of the accuser and the other of the accused, and placing them on a stick athwart the pot, after certain incantations they reverse them into the pot and decide the process in favor of the party whose pice is most whitened.

Before the Dayaks engage in any journey, war, head-hunting, or indeed any matter of importance, they endeavour to procure omens from the kites, and invite them by screaming songs, and scattering rice before them. If these birds take their flight in the direction they wish to go, it is regarded as a favorable omen, if they take another direction they reckon it is unfavorable, and delay the business till the omens appear more favorable.

LIGOR & SIAM.

ACCOUNT OF AN OVERLAND JOURNEY FROM LIGOR TO BANGKOK.

During the last mission to Siam, Captain (now Colonel) BURNEY left at Ligor, with the Siamese Governor or Rajah of that place Mr. HARRIS, a Sub-Assistant Surgeon on the Penang Establishment, and Mr. LEAL an Interpreter. The rajah had pressed Captain BURNEY to convey to Bangkok on board the mission vessel, one of his highness's sons and a commissioner from Siam with their followers, to make room for whom in the vessel, as well as to ensure in some measure the fulfilment of an engagement which the rajah had made to join Captain BURNEY at Bangkok, his highness was requested to let Messrs. HARRIS and LEAL accompany him to the Capital overland. Mr. HARRIS kept some notes of his journey from Ligor, and the following account has been drawn up from those notes, with some assistance from Captain BURNEY.

The mission had received from Mr. CRAWFURD of Singapore, the following account of Ligor, the general accuracy of which was afterwards proved.

"The river of *Ta-yang* (*Tha-wang*) leads part of the way to the present town of Ligor, called in the Siamese language *Lakon* (*Lakhon*)—after going two hours up the river, the traveller proceeding to Ligor quits his boat and an hour's walk (half an hour's) conveys him to the town by a good road with an avenue of trees. Ligor is a walled town with ramparts of brick and mortar, with four gate-ways and a wet ditch, which during the rains communicates with the *Tha-wang* river. It is in form an oblong square. There are not above 14 or 15 old cannon mounted; (the mission did not see one.) The place contains about 5,000 inhabitants and appears at one time to have been much more populous, but it was twice captured by the Burmans and many of the inhabitants carried off by Alompra in 1760, and again so lately as 1785 by one of Minderagee's Generals. The present chief is a great favorite of the King of Siam, who has much increased his authority which not only extends over all the tributary Malay states on both sides of the peninsula, but within the last year over Singora.

"He has in his hands the power of life and death. The number of males borne in the conscription rolls within the proper jurisdiction of Ligor, exclusive of the Malay tributaries, is said to be 12,000."

In addition to the above, the Mission collected at Ligor the following particulars: The chief retains in his own hands every particle of power and personally conducts the most trifling details. He has a *Tha Belat* or Deputy, but no *Yokobat* or other officer, as in most of the Siamese provinces.

The office of Belat is said to be a sinecure, excepting when the chief leaves the country, at which times that minister or two or three others are formed into a commission of Government. There are three or four commissioners sent to his highness from Bangkok as a kind of assessors, but he seems to treat them with very little consideration. His highness's wife, a first cousin of the present king of Siam, is said to possess much influence over the chief and to be principally consulted by him. Their eldest daughter is one of the present king of Siam's wives and she lately presented his majesty with a son and heir. His highness's eldest son by a concubine, named *Phra Phak di Bori-rak*, is Governor of Quedah by appointment from the court of Siam.

The town of Ligor stands on a very extensive plain which appears to reach the great central range of mountains, and is covered with paddy cultivation. There is a little pepper

cultivated in the interior, and some iron collected at a place called *Lamphoon*. But the tin mines are much neglected and said to be exhausted. The mission was shown near the landing place on the banks of the *Tha-wang*, some old brick foundations alledged to be the site of the Dutch factory, which existed here from the beginning of the 17th century to the middle of the last. Ligor now conducts no direct trade with China, Cochin China or other foreign ports. What little trade it possesses is with Siam and is entirely engrossed by the chief. There is not a single brick dwelling-house in the town, but a great many temples and pyramids of that material and most of them in ruins. One pyramid or *Phra Chai di*, with a high gilt spire, is visible from the sea and larger than any which the mission afterwards saw at Bangkok. The chief's house is of plank with a tiled roof; it is situated within the fort, which consists of an old high wall in a most delapidated condition, without a gun mounted in any part within or upon it. Indeed, the mission saw scarcely a musket at Ligor, and presume that the chief had sent the whole of his military means to Quedah. The number of women also far exceeded the proportion of men. Most of the latter were said to be in the interior, attending to cultivation, but the mission had reason to believe that his highness left many of them with his boats on the opposite coast.

The mission brig had no difficulty in making Ligor port excepting what proceeded from light westerly winds and a strong easterly current, and it met with no difficulty in departing again, although from the high swell and surf which are raised whenever the northerly winds blow strong, and the shoal at the head of Tantalam island, it is evident that Ligor roads are not safe for a ship during the height of the north-east monsoon. The brig was lying at anchor in 3 fathoms about 2½ miles from the mouth of the *Tha-yang* river which is to the northward of that of the Ligor. The two rivers join a few miles inland, and the latter is now little used.

Captain WALTER HAMILTON, in his new account of the East Indies in 1744 gives the following account of Ligor:—

"Ligor lies about 12 leagues to the northward of Sangora, and between them lies a low uninhabited island called Papier.* It reaches from Sangora within three leagues of Ligor river. It is well stored with wild buffaloes, hog and deer which are free for all persons to kill at pleasure. The road of Ligor lies two leagues from the river, and about a league within the river's mouth stands the Dutch factory, a pretty commodious house, built of brick after the Dutch fashion. The town stands about 2 miles above the factory. It is built of bamboos and thatched with reed. There are many Pagan temples in it, which have steeples built very high, in form of very sharp pyramids. They are so small that in the roads, they look like ships' masts: it produces abundance of fine tin, but the Dutch engross it all.

LA LOUBERE in his historical relation of Siam mentions the following anecdote of a French engineer, M. DE LA MORE, whom M. CHAUMONT had left at Siam. When by the king of Siam's order he went to Ligor to take a draught thereof, the Governor would not permit him to go round it under two days, though he could have done it in less than an hour.

Journal of an overland route from the Town of LIGOR *to* FOTHIA, *a village on the Isthmus of* KRAW, *by* ARTHUR HARRIS, *Acting Assistant Surgeon, attached to Captain* BURNEY'S *Mission.*

Sunday, 18th December, 1825.—Every thing being ready for our departure, and the Raja of Ligor having allowed Mr. LEAL, and myself 8 elephants to carry ourselves, servants and baggage—about noon, the Raja preceded by a Siamese band of musicians went to the Wat or Siamese temple where his daughter lay embalmed. Her remains had been in that state since the month of April or May, and the Siamese priests daily prayed over them. We were told that the Raja had not had time to burn the body in a suitable manner, but that he

* This Island in Horsburgh's chart is named *Tantalam*, which word Mr Crawfurd supposes to be a corruption of the Malay Tana or land, of Tha loong, a Siamese province, lying between Singora and Ligor, called also *Merdelang* and *Bendelan*, corruptions of *Menang*, country, and *Bon* a village of Thaloong. The Siamese do not recognise Tantalam as an island; the north end, or our Ligor Point they call Lem or Point Ch'hoomp'hok and the channel which divides the island from the main, they call *Khlong* or river *Phonang*. Hamilton's Papier may be derived from the names often given to the mouth of the Ligor river, *Paknam Phya* or *Pakphya*.

intended doing so upon his return from Siam. About 10 o'clock the Raja came to our house upon an elephant, which had very rich trappings, desired us to mount, and follow him, which we did. We passed through the town of Ligor and over extensive plains until half past 2, when we crossed the *Tha-wang* river, and arrived at a place called *Nam Jin** where we halted for the day. *Nam Jin* is a small village, and contains a Siamese temple, called *Wat Chomlan*†. We found here an attap house erected for the Raja's accommodation, and a smaller one for ourselves. Before our departure from Ligor some men had been sent by the Raja to erect similar houses at most of the places where we halted. Our whole party now consisted of about 3 or 400 persons with 80 elephants; about 100 Siamese soldiers dressed in scarlet and armed with muskets walked before the Raja's elephant, and before them a party of Malays was employed in clearing the road, and sometimes in making a new path. Besides the Raja and ourselves, the subordinate Siamese officers only were mounted. There were no women, and the elephants were chiefly employed, in carrying the Raja's baggage, which consisted, we were told, of all the treasure and curiosities that he had been able to collect at Quedah, or to procure from Penang for the King, and *Wangna* of Siam. The Raja left his women and sick son at Ligor to follow him to Bangkok by water upon the change of the monsoon in March.

Mr. LEAL made the Latitude of Ligor by observation 8° 17' 16. N.

Monday, 19th December.—We continued at *Nam Jin* all this day in consequence of the Raja being slightly indisposed.

He applied to me for some medicine, but before he would take it he desired one of his followers, a stout healthy man, to take and report its effects. It was a purgative.

Tuesday, 20th. December.—We started from *Nam Jin* about 9 o'clock in the morning, and at 10 crossed a small stream *Nam Khao*‡ from which the road was very bad and miry—the elephants sinking in mud at every step—until ½ past 2 P. M. when we arrived at a place called *Ban Hooa Thap-han*; our halting houses were near a Siamese temple called *Wat Konkloon*, and close to the sea side, as we heard very plainly the beating of the waves. But it rained very hard, and we were unable to go and see any thing. Our road this day passed through thick jungle, and sometimes through paddy fields

Wednesday, 21st. December.—We left *Ban Hooa*‖ *Thap-han* about 10 A. M. and after passing over very bad roads covered with water we arrived with a few of the party only, at 8 o'clock at night at *Ban Clai*, § a village on the right bank of the river *Clai* inhabited chiefly by Chinese, who are employed in cultivating pepper.

Our halting houses were as usual near a Siamese temple. The Raja did not come up this day.

Thursday, 22d. December.—Mr. LEAL and I took a boat and went down to the mouth of the Clai river in about an hour. The banks of the river are very high, and covered with thick jungle. At the village the river is about 100 yards wide but the mouth is narrower, being blocked up by the sands gathering on the bar and on each side, and here the surf was as high and violent as that at Madras. The bed of the river is sandy, and the water very clear. The Raja arrived late this night and in passing our halting house enquired how we had got on through the bad roads, and weather. Mr. LEAL took an observation at the mouth of the river *Clai* and made the latitude 8° 42' 0.

Friday, 23rd December.—We were detained all this day at *Ban Clai* in consequence of the whole of the Raja's baggage not having come up. In the evening he asked us to accompany him to see the village of *Ban Clai*. It contained about 1000 persons, chiefly Chinese, and the head man was a Chinese. One of the Raja's followers was attacked this night with cholera, and at the Raja's request I administered medicine which overcame the disease.

Saturday, 24th. December.—We started from *Ban Clai* at ½ past 7 in the morning; at 10 crossed a small stream named *Khlong Punsoo*; at ½ past 10 another, *Khlong Klien*;¶ at ½ past 12 another, *Khlong Nam Hoo*, near which we passed through paddy fields; at ½ past one,

* *Nam* is water and *gin* cold in the Siamese language. † *Wat* or *Vat* is a temple or monastery. ‡ Mountain stream, *Khao* is a hill. ‖ *Hooa* is a head or point in Siamese; *Thap'han*, a bridge. *Ban* is a village and *Khlong*, a river; most of the names in Mr. HARRIS's route have some signification which is pointed out wherever it can be ascertained. § This is HORSBURGH's *Claij* but the map in LOUBERE's Historical Relation of Siam, as well as that in VALENTYN's works spells it as here; *Clai* is near in Siamese, *Cl'ai* is far. ¶ *Klein* is a mine.

we crossed another clear, and sandy stream *Khlong Tha-p'hoon;* at 3 another, *Khlong Tha-nok** near the foot of a high hill, and at 6 P. M we arrived at a place called *Ban Krang*† where we halted for the night. Our road this day lay chiefly through thick jungle, and we saw several immense pieces of timber apparently cut to be removed. Our halting place was situated at the foot of a hill on a beautiful plain, through which a fine clear stream, *Khlong Krang*, flowed.

The rajah hearing from me that the next was Christmas day, directed his people to supply us with such extra articles as could be procured, to enable us to celebrate our festival. The rajah had given us on the day we left Ligor a supply of claret and cherry brandy which had been sent to him from Penang.

Sunday, 25th December.—We crossed the *Kh'long Krang* at ½ past 7 A. M.; at 11 *Klong So-ch'hoon*, the banks of which were very steep;—at ½ past 2 we came in sight of an extensive range of mountains on the left side of the road and at 6 P. M. we arrived at our halting place near a small village called *Hooa nat.*‖ Our road this day lay chiefly through thick jungle. In the evening the rajah sent for us while he examined some of the villagers respecting the next day's route.

Monday, 26th December.—We left *Hooa Nat* at 8 A. M. and after crossing three or four streams and in one place some hilly ground called by the Siamese the Nine Hills,§ we arrived at 6 P. M. at our halting place near a small village named *Kahnom.*¶ Our road this day was through thick jungle, and the rajah's followers were prepared to meet tigers. It rained all this day very heavily and incessantly.

Tuesday, 27th December [illegible] all this day, and we were unable to stir out of the house for a mo[illegible]—Heavy rain detained us [illegible] crossed a

Wednesday, 28th Decem[illegible]ment.

stream *Khlong Chekram* [illegible] We left *Kahnom* at ½ past 6 A. M. and at 12 [illegible] *Chekram* [illegible] and halted on the other side near a small village of Siamese, *Ban* [illegible] around which there was a paddy cultivation. The bamboo we saw growing here was of enormous size and the Siamese use it for keeping water and for other domestic purposes. There was a bamboo bridge constructed over the *Chekram* stream, but the elephants passed through the water. The rajah discovering this day that I had a pocket compass, made a pretence of borrowing it from me, and he did not return it again until I saw him at Bangkok.

Thursday, 29th December.—We left *Ban Chekram* at ½ past 7 A. M. At 8 crossed *Khlong Tha-thang,*** a small stream. At 12 M. passed near some hills, the road leading between two of them at some distance from each other; and about 3 P. M. arrived at our halting place near a village *Ban Hude,*†† on the side of a very rapid stream, *Khlong Koowat* which we crossed. Our road this day passed over extensive uncultivated plains, but there was, as usual, paddy cultivation around the village where we halted. Mr. LEAL and some of the party were here attacked with fever.

Friday, 30th December.—We halted this day in consequence of some of the elephants being knocked up.

Saturday, 31st. December.—We left *Ban Hude* at ½ past 6 A. M. At 10 crossed *Khlong Dinles*, at ½ past 10 *Khlong-sai*, at ½ past 11 *Khlong Ban-pring*‡‡ —and about 3 P. M. we arrived at our halting place near a small village, *Ban Kliung* ‖‖ The road this day passed through jungle but level ground.

Sunday, 1st. January, 1826.—We left *Ban Kliung* at ½ past 6 A. M. At 10 crossed *Khlong Hooei*§§ *Yong reng;* at 12 we saw a hill to our left, and at 2 P. M. we arrived at our halting place on the right of a large river, *Khlong Tha-k'ham* ¶¶ on the opposite side of which towards the mouth of the river, is a large town called *Ban-Phoonph'in.*** Our

* *Tha* is a place, and *Nok* outside. † *Krang* is a shell; this may be *Horsburgh's* and *Valentyn's* Klang, as it appears to be in about the same situation above Krang and close to the sea shore as *Shamph'oon* a place possessing Iron mines. ‖ End of paddy field *Nat* is paddy field. § Kaw Tuon Khao. ¶ This must be *Horsburgh's* and *Valentyn's Carnom*, although they place *Carnom* river more to the southward and *Carnom Point* a little lower than the 9th degree of latitude. ** Place of gold †† *Place of tigue* or *Tigue spot.* ‡‡ *Ping* is a fruit the Malay *Murriam* or *Rambeng*, whence the name of Point Romania is said to be taken. ‖‖ Is cleared. §§ *Hooei* is deep and *Reng* a vulture. ¶¶ *Kham* is to cross a ferry. *** The steel or finer iron of this place is said to be the best in the Siamese dominions. The swords of the great officers of the Court of Siam are manufactured of the steel procured here.

road this day passed through jungle, and over some extensive uncultivated plains. In the evening the rajah took Mr. LEAL and myself in a boat some way up the river.

Monday, 2nd. January 1826.—We were detained this day in passing the elephants across the *Tha-k'ham** which was broad and deep; the elephants were obliged to swim over it and the baggage to be carried in boats. Mr. LEAL and I attempted to go in a boat down to the mouth of the river, but it was too late in the day. We saw a branch of the river running down to the southward, which we were told led to the town of *Bandon*.† We visited the town of *Phoop'hin*, which contains about 1,200 Siamese inhabitants under a Chinese officer and the houses are on both sides of the river. We saw here several immense pieces of timber and some very long boats like those belonging to the chiefs at Bangkok. M. LEAL took an observation and made the Lat. 9° 38' 0.

The rajah told me that this river *Tha-k'ham* in the northern boundary of his jurisdiction.

This day some of the rajah's followers were attacked with cholera and I was requested to afford them medical aid, which I did with success.

Tuesday, 3rd January 1826.—We started at 10 A. M. crossing *Khlong Tha-k'ham* in a boat, down the left bank of which river the road passed for some time. At 4 P. M. we arrived at our halting place near a small village *Ban Kalok*. The road this day lay through immense plains, with patches of paddy cultivation. At this place there was no house erected for the accommodation of Mr. LEAL and myself, and we were obliged to shelter ourselves by putting our two howdahs together, which we covered with some attap leaves stitched together which the rajah had brought with him.

The rajah apologised for our [illegible] ting that as far as his authority extended he had been able to have [illegible]

Wednesday, 4th January 1826.—We started at [illegible] and at 12 crossed a small river and passed through a small village, the names of which I did [illegible] not learn. We then passed through very extensive paddy fields and halted at 2 P. M. at *Phumrieng*‡ a small village situated inland of the town of *Ch'haiya*. Shortly after, the rajah requested us to dress ourselves in our best suits, and prepare to be introduced to the Siamese governor of *Ch'haiya*, who would come to pay his respects to the rajah. In the evening we went to the rajah's house and saw *Phya Ch'haiya* who shewed himself to be inferior to the rajah, sitting at a distance and joining his hands together whenever he spoke. *Phya Ch'haiya* is an elderly man, and seemed to shew no curiosity about us.

Thursday, 5th January 1826.—We paid a visit this day to the town of *Ch'haiya* which contains about 2,000 inhabitants, some being Chinese. Most of the houses were planked. The river of *Ch'haiya* is a large, broad, deep stream in which we saw some junks lying; we did not cross it but passed, I suppose at the head of the river. We were told that this town exports a large quantity of paddy. We saw gambling shops in the town, and Chinese and Siamese busily engaged. The town of *Ch'haiya* is defended by a stockade fortification; we were told that the inhabitants in the province amount to 18 or 19,000 souls, and that there is a good deal of trade here.‖ Mr. LEAL made the latitude of *Ch'haiya* 9° 57' 0.

Friday, 6th. January 1826.—We started from *Phumrieng* at ½ past 2; at ½ past 2 passed near a large stony hill, and at ½ past 4 arrived at our halting place, near a small village *Ban Tha-rena*§ around which as usual, there was paddy cultivation.

Saturday, 7th. January 1826.—At 8 A. M. we started, crossing a small stream *Khlong Tha-rena*, and at 11 we arrived at the sea beach, and on the sands, the road continued the

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*The *Thak'ham* discharges itself into the sea by two channels; at the mouth of the northern is situated *Thakhay*, a town forming the northern boundary of the rajah of Ligor's government. The southern channel is the *Bandon* which name indeed is often given to the whole. The rajah stopped at the place where the river is usually crossed and where it bears the name "*Thak'ham*." This is known to be a large stream which leads to *Peenom* 3 days' journey from *Phoonga* near Junk-ceylon. There are numerous islands off the mouth of the *Bandon* river, named by *Horsburgh* and *Valentyn* Larchin islands. † Bon inland, inside. ‡ Close arranged. ‖ As Mr. HARRIS did not cross what he conceives to be the *Ch'haiya* river, this part of *Ch'haiya* is probably, nothing more than arm of the sea, supposed by him to be a river, a large, broad, stream as he describes it, would most probably have come from the central mountains or far from the interior. *Horsburgh* and *Valentyn* have a place named *Patanor* near *Ch'haiya*, whether a former town as usual, or some corruption we cannot learn. Much trade and intercourse pass through the *Bandon* river and thence by means of elephants between *Ch'haiya* and *Phoonga*, a town situated on the bay of Bengal on the continent to the north of Junk-ceylon, the tin and other produce of which islands whenever required, are conveyed by this route to Bangkok. § *Rena* is a boat, a little to the southward of *Tha rena* and close to the sea shore is a small town named *Poroong*.

whole of the day. We saw a prow under sail, and the beach was beautifully lined by *Arau trees,** without any surf and the sand quite hard. We passed the mouth of two streams, *K'hlong Kant'horee*, and *K'hlong Punke Doowat* where the water being deep, the elephants were carried out into the sea. At 4 P. M we halted on the sea-shore, where we were obliged to make temporary accommodation with howdahs, and attaps. A party of the rajah's followers went into the jungle and soon returned with posts and other materials with which they built him up a house in a short time. During the night we experienced a very heavy squall.

Sunday, 8th January, 1826.—At 7 A. M we pursued our journey which continued an hour along the sea shore. We then turned inland and travelled through thick jungle until 5 P. M. when we passed through a village surrounded with paddy cultivation. At 6 we saw a high hill, and at 7 we arrived at our halting place on the right bank of a large river, *Kh'long Lang Sewun*† on the other side of which is a pretty large village named *Lang Sewun*.

Monday, 9th January, 1826.—We halted this day, giving the elephants rest. I visited the village of *Lang Sewun*, which is surrounded with durian and betelnut trees. There was a junk in the river, which is a fine broad one. I saw Malays‡ in the village which contains about 600 inhabitants and exports principally betelnut.

Tuesday, 10th January 1826.—The elephants were early taken higher up the river to cross it, and we, at ½ past 7, passed over in a boat; at ½ past 1 P M. we crossed a small clear stream with a sandy bottom, named *Khlong Thakho* and arrived at our halting place near a village on the other side called *Thakho*. Our road this day passed over good, even, grassy land, with extensive paddy fields on each side.

Wednesday 11th. January 1826.—We started at ½ past 7 A. M. and at 2 we halted on the right bank of a stream *Kh'long Suwi*, near a large village named *Suwi* which contained, we were told, about 2,000 inhabitants, and the governor of which is a Phya. We also learnt that some of the Burmese inhabitants carried away from Mergui, were in this town. The road this day was a good clear one with paddy fields on each side.

Thursday, 12th. January 1826.— At ½ past 9 we crossed *Kh'long Suwi*, ‖ and at 1 P. M. we halted on the right bank of a stream *Kh'long Wisai*§ near a small village named *Wisai*. The road this day was of the same description as that on the preceding day. The rajah did not stop at *Wisai*, but went on, we are told, to the next stage, at *Ch'hoomphon*.

Friday, 13th. January, 1826.—At ½ past 8 A. M. we crossed *Kh'long Wisai* and after passing through some jungle, we came to very extensive paddy cultivation, which surrounds the town of *Ch'hoomphon*, near and below which we halted at 6 P. M. on the right hand bank of the *Ch'hoomphon* river, at a place that had been prepared for the rajah, and we again joined him.

Saturday 14th. January 1826.—We halted this day. The river of *Ch'hoomphon* is extremely winding with a sandy bottom, and we saw some junks above us off the town of *Ch'hoomphon* where they must have gone up with a high tide, as at the place where we were the river was fordable. The banks were high, and we saw no rocks. We could gain no satisfactory information respecting the point desired by Captain BURNEY, whether it would be practicable to open a communication between this river and one on the Isthmus of *Kraw*. *Phya Kraw*¶ the governor of *Ch'hoomphon*, attended with some men with muskets, waited on the rajah, who introduced us to him. We did not seem to shew the same respect for the rajah as the governor of *Ch'haiya* had done.

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* The Malayan for Casuarina Littorea. † Is a garden. ‡ We have been told that a colony of Malays under a Malay chief was within a few years back settled at a place called *Rinnong* or *Rinding*, or the western shore of the Isthmus of *Kraw*, but that the Burmese attacked and laid it waste, when the inhabitants fled and settled at this place Sewun. The name of the Isthmus *Kraw* appears to taken have been from Kraw, which is said to be a small inland town between *Ch'haiya* and *Ch'hoomphon*, although not set down in any Chart or Map that we have ever seen. At *Lang Sewun*, HORSBURGH has a place named *Penomxin*; whether a former town or some corruption of *Lang Sewun* or *Ch'hoomphon* we cannot learn. The Portuguese from whose Charts HORSBURGH probably took *Penomxin* use an x for the Siamese letter *Ch'hoo*. ‖ Is surf § *Sai* or sand. ¶ This person is the *Phra Kh'long* of the *Wangna* or Grand Prince of Siam and he was especially sent down from Bangkok with a reinforcement of troops to defend *Ch'hoomphon*, after the former Siamese governor had made an irruption into the Anglo Burmese territory and carried away the inhabitants of Tenasserim and many villagers around it. The former governor of *Ch'hoomphon* was sent up to the capital where he died. At *Ch'hoomphon* the Siamese forces destined to attack the Burmese at Mergui, always assembled, and the *Phya* or governor was entrusted by the Court of Siam with the duty of watching the Burmese on the Coast of Tenasserim. Since the Burmese invasion of Siam under Alompra, the Siamese dominions on the eastern shore of the gulf between Ligor and the Capital, is remarkably thinly peopled, and Ligor

I asked the rajah here to forward to Mr. MAINGY at Mergui a letter which Captain BURNEY had entrusted to me, but he assured me that this could not be done, as very positive orders had been sent down to *Phya Kraw* from Bangkok desiring him to prevent all communication between the Siamese and the inhabitants of the English territories. From this day the rajah began to shew a good deal of reserve and distrust towards us, and we understood he received unpleasant letters from Siam. In the evening, I visited the town of *Ch'hoomphon* which though stockaded in the same manner as *Ch'haiya*, did not appear to contain so many or such good houses. The only brick building is a temple. The inhabitants were said to amount to about 7 or 8,000. We saw no Chinese here. We did not see any of the Burmese prisoners but we heard that there were a good many at *Ch'hoomp'hon*. Mr. LEAL made the latitude of *Ch'hoomp'hon* 10° 55' 0.*

Sunday, 15th January, 1826.—At ½ past 7 A. M. we crossed the *Ch'hoomp'hon* river and pursued our road through paddy fields and sometimes jungle until ½ past 5 when we halted near a small village surrounded as usual with paddy cultivation and named *Bang Soon*. †

Monday, 16th January, 1826.—We started at 7 A. M. passing over a good even road with jungle however on each side until ½ past 3, when we halted at the head of a small river called *Pathiu* near the mouth of which is a small village of the same name, containing about 200 Chinese and Siamese inhabitants, employed in fishing and making *balachan* ‡ which is conveyed to Bangkok. The Siamese chief of the village, *Phra Pathiu*, came to pay his respects to the rajah towards whom the *Phra* shewed more humble reverence then any other Siamese chief we had seen. The *Phra* of *Pathiu* appeared a quiet, mild, character, of about 52 years of age, and as he had never seen a white face before, he displayed great curiosity [illegible] On another occasion [illegible] him a visit [illegible] he bare my arm and called his women out to see [illegible] lighted.

Late this night, the rajah of Ligor sent for me and with a great deal of kindness [illegible] dress, invited me to inform him truly whether Captain BURNEY had appointed me and Mr. LEAL to accompany him overland for the purpose of ascertaining the route and examining the state of the country. The rajah then made many excuses, complaining that all his elephants were knocked up, and that he would be under the necessity of requesting Mr. LEAL and myself to proceed from *Pathiu* to Bangkok in a boat. He begged of me not to be uneasy; that he would appoint some of his best and most confidential men to accompany us; that the *Phra* of *Pathiu* had procured a very good and safe boat and would direct his own son to go with us. The rajah pointed out to me to notice the very great trouble and inconvenience to which his desire of fulfilling his engagement with Captain BURNEY had subjected him in travelling over such a miserable country and during such bad weather.

Tuesday, 17th January, 1826.—Finding privately from some of the rajah's followers that he had received positive orders from Bangkok prohibiting us taking us with him overland, and seeing him extremely uneasy and anxious, we made up our minds to proceed by sea. To own the truth, I did not regret the conclusion of my land journey. Mr. LEAL and I were on separate elephants by ourselves. The elephants had Siamese howdahs with covers, and when tired of sitting we could only double up our legs and lie down although the animals were very quiet and tame, yet their motion was extremely slow and rough and in difficult roads most fatiguing and painful. The road was so bad that not a day passed, without the rajah being obliged to leave some of his elephants behind and get others in their room from the inhabitants of the villages.

We examined the boat which was about 40 feet long but narrow, and carried 14 oars. There was a kind of cabin put up for us: the rajah certainly took every pains to make us satisfied, directing the *Phra* of *Pathiu* to supply us with every thing that could be procured and treat us with great respect and attention.

Wednesday, 18th January, 1826.—About 8 A. M. the rajah of Ligor took leave of us very kindly and pursued his route by land. He left 25 of his followers with a Siamese

fisch has but a scanty population. The governor of *Ch'hoomphon*, it is said, is not allowed to trade, and that place, since the conquest by the Burmese of Mergui and Tavoy, appears to have been converted into a purely military post or garrison. This accounts for the absence of Chinese, and for the entire cessation of that valuable trade, which formerly passed between Mergui and the Gulf of Siam.

* HORSBURGH has a place called *Bardia*, whether a corruption of *Bandon*, *Ban Ch'haiya*, *Pathiu* or what we cannot discover. † *Bang* is a rivulet, *Soon* is the Siamese name for the *Arau* tree. ‡ A kind of caviare.

officer *Nai** *Siriootha* and his dobash *Sultan Shah*, a native of the coast of Coromandel who had usually served as interpreter between us, and also seemed to possess much of the rajah's confidence. The rajah left some of his sick followers also to proceed by sea in another boat, in company with us. We embarked in the boat at ½ past 3 P. M. and dropt down to the village of *Pathiu*, where, after having procured all our provisions &c. we were detained until the 27th by strong easterly winds. The village, as was before said, contains about 200 inhabitants occupied principally in fishing.

The river is narrow and shallow and [illegible] the mouth of it is an extensive mud flat containing beds of oysters. At some distance [illegible] the southward there is another flat in which cockles of various descriptions are procurea[illegible].

To the north the coast is stu[illegible]ed with rocks. There is no good water near *Pathiu* and the inhabitants are obliged to bring what they use from some distance inland. Mr. LEAL made the latitude of *Pathiu* 11° 10' 0.

Friday, 27th January, 1826.—The bad weather abating, we left *Pathiu* at 12 M. and after rowing for three hours we anchored close to the shore being obliged to wait for the boat conveying some of the rajah's sick followers. At 9 P. M. there being a fine breeze, Mr. LEAL who took charge of navigating the boat, insisted upon proceeding and we then set sail.

Saturday, 28th January, 1826.—We continued under sail all this day in sight of the coast which appeared low. Mr. LEAL accidentally discovered among *Nai Siriootha's* baggage, a Siamese blank book, containing copies of some letters which the rajah of Ligor was sending to Bangkok with us. These letters excused the rajah as much as possible, for having proposed to bring us overland, stating that we had been forced upon him, but he has given us no opportunity of seeing the proper route between Ligor and Bangkok and suggesting that our papers should be seized and examined on our arrival at *Pak-nam*.

Sunday, 29th January, 1826.—We came in sight of the high mountains called *Samroiyot*† "three hundred peaks," at the foot of which, at a small village of the same name, we anchored about 4 P. M. to take in water. We found here that the rajah had passed by land but had kindly left a supply of provisions for our use. At 7 P. M. we again got under weigh and continued our course along the coast, where it was so steep and rough that I thought if the boat met with any accident I shall never be able to get ashore.‡

Monday, 30th January, 1826.—On this day Mr. LEAL who had a compass and quadrant with him, finding that the passage along the coast would be unnecessarily long and tedious, obliged the boatmen to steer a more easterly course and direct for the mouth of the *Menam*.‖ The boatmen objected much and towards evening a stiff breeze coming on, the boat which has no keel could not keep her course and was driven to leeward until 10 P. M. [illegible]n she got aground on the mud flats between the mouths of *Thachise*§ and *Menam* rivers, where we were detained all that night.

Tuesday, 31st. January, 1826.—Fortunately the boat met with no injury and was easily got off at 6 this morning: between 8 and 9 we entered the *Menam* and shortly after anchored o[illegible]rt of *Paknam*.¶ Mr. LEAL and I went ashore and visited the governor *Phya* of *Paknam* who shewed a disposition to detain us until he received orders from Bangkok respecting us. But in consequence of the information which we had collected from the copies of the rajah of Ligor's letters, we made a pretext for returning to the boat and set sail for Bangkok where we arrived opposite Captain BURNEY'S house about 10 o'clock at night.

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* *Nai* is a headman or chief of a department &c. †*Sam* three, *Roi* hundred, *Yot* peaks. This is Kœmfer's *Samajota* and the mountains of Penseis of Portuguese Charts—all Junks bound to China or Cochin China from Bangkok steer along the western coast as far as *Sam roi yot* where they fill their water and then strike across the gulf of Siam due east. ‡ Near *Samroiyot* is a Siamese village called *Hosi* or *Cui* which Mr. CRAWFURD justly supposes must have been converted into the *Ciu* of European navigators and of *Horsburgh's* Chart by some writer marking the i in the wrong place. *Loubere* writes it in his map *Cuil*, but Captain *Hamilton* calls it *Cui* and Kœmfer *Kiu*. The last mentioned author describes the coasts hereabouts as very steep and rocky and not unlike those of Sweden. ‖ *Me*, mother *nam* water. The name given to the largest river in Siam or any other country. §Chinese place—on this river and particularly at a place called *Lak-khon-ch'haise*, reside the principal manufacturers of sugar who are all Chinese. ¶ *Pak* mouth, and *Nam* water and river. The title of *Chuo Phya* is generally added to the mouth of the *Menam* by way of distinction and this is Kœmfer's *Paynam Taufia*.

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